The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 29, 1894.

The Week.

On Wednesday week, for the first time since specie payments were resumed, there was a premium on gold in Wall Street. The premium ranged from 1-64 to 1/8, and was chiefly at the latter figure. It was based on sentiment and not on facts, since the Government had not suspended gold payments, but was keeping open door at the sub-treasury, and was redeeming legal-tender notes on presentation. Moreover, there was an abundance of gold in the Treasury and no possible chance of a shortage. How are we to explain this phenomenon? There are two ways, and they are equally ludicrous. One is to suppose that intending subscribers to the new Government loan were intimidated by the newspapers, and that they were afraid of drawing unfavorable comment upon themselves if they took gold from the Treasury to pay for their bond subscriptions. The other and more probable explanation is that they were intimidated by the Government itself, fearing discrimination hereafter if they avail themselves of their legal rights in a purely business transaction. According to the letter of the law, the secretary was obliged to call for "coin" in his bond sale. The law under which he acts was passed before the resumption of specie payments. The bonds being repayable, both principal and interest, in coin, it was fitting that the bond subscriptions should be paid in coin. But the reason for these distinctions ceased when specie payments were resumed. The distinctions ought to have ceased at the same time. They did cease as to the payment of customs duties in coin.

When a sale of Government bonds is to be made, its success is to be determined by the number of bids received, the amount applied for, and the price paid. Measured by all these tests, the present sale is a success, but it has been a success in another way not anticipated by anybody. It has drawn public attention to the unscientific arrangement of the national finances as nothing else could have done. It has exposed the absurdity and the expensiveness of the system which charges the Government with the responsibility of maintaining a gold reserve for the settlement of international balances. In the present instance the Government assumes an obligation of 5 per cent. interest for nine years and three months on $50,000,000 (less the premium received), amounting to say $12,000,000, in order to insure the commerce of the country against a fresh panic by reason of a possible diminution of the gold reserve. Ours is the only government in the world that charges itself with such functions, but it is something that we can never get rid of so long as the legal-tender notes are outstanding. It is indispensable that these should be taken in and cancelled—the sooner the better. Ex-Comptroller Trenholm, in a letter to the *World*, recommends that the bond sales be continued as long as anybody is willing tc buy, and that a special issue should be made at 2½ per cent. interest for the purpose of taking in the redundant currency. The only defect in this plan is that it does not provide for the cancellation of the legal-tender notes taken in. It is time to put an end to the greenback folly altogether. Thirty-two years have passed since these notes were issued as a "war measure." The necessity of issuing them at all was never proved, and may well be doubted, but however that question may be decided, there was no necessity of keeping them alive more than six months after the end of the war. They ought to have been funded in interest-bearing bonds at once, like the other floating debt. We hope to see measures taken in the next Congress, if not in the present one, to deliver us from this prolonged nightmare.

The Boston *Advertiser* discusses the question of currency reform as though that portion of a bank's capital which, under the present arrangement, is deposited with the Government as security for circulating notes, would disappear up the chimney or otherwise cease to exist if the Baltimore plan were adopted. Having this conception of the volatile nature of bank capital, it says: "The Baltimore plan in effect only leaves one-half or one-quarter of the bank's capital for the protection of depositors." Let us see how the case would stand as regards depositors in a bank starting with a capital of $114,000. We take this sum because that amount is required, at the present price of bonds, to take out $90,000 of circulation. The only portion of this sum which can be made available for the protection of depositors is $24,000, *i. e.*, the excess of value of the bonds over circulation. Under the Baltimore plan there would be $57,000 of bank-notes which would be a first lien on assets, but there would be $57,000 of capital remaining as a protection to depositors, against $24,000 under the present arrangement; or $33,000 more in the former case than in the latter. Now if we take into account, as is proper, the bank's bills receivable (which it has taken in exchange for its circulating notes), we have $90,000 under present arrangements and $57,000 under the Baltimore plan, or $33,000 more under the former than under the latter. In other words, the two systems are exactly alike as regards the protection of depositors, provided none of the capital goes up the chimney or is carried off by witches.

Ex-Speaker Reed made his first speech since election at the dinner of the Home Market Club in Boston on Thursday. Before such an audience it was probably inevitable that he should vaunt protection, and he said some very foolish things about the tariff. But at the same time he showed as clearly as in his first brief comments to an interviewer a realization of the perils which confront the victors at the late election. Of course he had to have his fling at some of the victims, but he turned from poking fun at the Democrats to remind his own party that "we have got something else to do besides rejoice," and that "victories bring responsibilities." Instead of predicting that the Republicans would sweep the country in 1896, he only claimed that, "if we have wisdom for two years, we will be trusted for more." As Mr. Reed's influence will be controlling in the next House of Representatives, such evidence that he has learned some wisdom from the wreck in which his previous speakership involved his party, is most welcome.

Mr. Reed is much better at vague sarcasm on general principles than he is at specific details. Cautious as he was in general about predicting what the actual working of the new tariff would be, it seemed to him "unavoidable" that "many woollen manufactories must go under." What a pity that the editor of the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* did not slip a copy of his paper of the same day into Mr. Reed's hands in time to forestall this particular prophecy. In it it is stated that many hosiery and underwear mills "have orders on hand sufficient to keep them running up to next March," while "many of the mills are at present very actively employed," "what with the duplicate orders received on heavy-weight goods and the hurrying forward of deliveries on light weights." In fact, says the *Reporter*, with a cruel spiking in advance of Mr. Reed's guns, the domestic manufacturer "is eager for the fray," fully ready to meet the foreigner in the gates and "show what he can do in quality and price of goods."

Mr. W. S. Parkerson of New Orleans had a royal reception at the same Home Market banquet. His speech was "well received," and his plea for "the elevation of the title of American citizen" was so fine that "the audience arose and gave him three rousing cheers." This was very flattering, but Mr. Parkerson is used to such demonstrations when he speaks. On the evening of March 14, 1891, he made a

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speech in his own New Orleans which brought him greater applause than cold and cultured Bostonians are capable of. "Hurrah for Parkerson!" cried the mob, when he declared then that he was "only a plain American citizen;" and when they asked, "Shall we get our guns?" "Yes, yes," said Parkerson, "get your guns and meet us in Congo Square immediately." The guns were got, and the eleven Italians were shot down in cold blood. According to Mr. Blaine and President Harrison, this deed was one of infamy, yet the instigator of it needs only to become a protectionist and go to Boston, to be welcomed to a seat beside the Governor of Massachusetts and Senator Hoar, and to be applauded for his noble sentiments in favor of making the name American glorious, with a bounty on sugar thrown in. Truly, as pious Senator Hoar says, "Light is breaking in the South"; but what is it that is breaking in Massachusetts?

In analyzing the vote of this city and State for light on the meaning of the late election, one point of first importance seems to be generally overlooked. Mr. Hill's vote in the city is set down at 127,088, and Mr. Morton's at 124,308, and Mr. Hill's plurality is thus made out to be 2,780. But the vote for Mr. Wheeler, 9,039, was as much an anti-Hill vote as that cast for Mr. Morton, and should be added to the latter. This makes the anti-Hill vote 133,347, and leaves Mr. Hill in a minority of 6,259 in the great Democratic city of New York. So in regard to the State. Mr. Morton's plurality over Hill is over 157,000, but to this should be added Mr. Wheeler's vote of 27,000, making the anti-Hill plurality about 185,000, which is without precedent in the history of the State. Cleveland's great plurality of 1882 was 192,000, but that was a Democratic plurality, and New York is a Democratic State. The anti-Hill plurality of 185,000 was cast against a Democratic candidate.

Mr. Strong told some amusing stories last week at the Chamber of Commerce dinner of his experience in trying to get men who come to him with advice, to take charge of the departments of the city government about the condition of which they sought to enlighten him. They recoiled from office immediately, as they were going to Europe or Alaska. We dare say he will have this same experience in a large number of cases, but he must not despair. This reluctance of respectable men to take city offices is one of the evils he has to encounter and redress. City offices have, through long years of politics and Tammany, become discredited with decent men, who shrink from the kind of people with whom they would come in contact, and from the possibility of having to wink at abuses in order to keep on good terms with their colleagues, as in Mr. Gray's case. He was actually threatened with indictment for proposing to expose his scoundrelly colleagues. This objection will be met with mainly among the men of leisure, or comparative leisure, but it is one which can be easily overcome or will wear out. Patriotism is not dead among them, and if they are assured of loyal support, and are allowed to clean out the Tammany vermin freely, Mr. Strong will have no great difficulty in getting their assistance. It is by such men that the leading offices are filled in the well-governed cities of the world. The greatest hindrance in taking municipal offices, to men of moderate means who have still their way to make in the world, is the insecurity of the tenure. The city could have the pick of the labor market if it could offer the tenure during good behavior which banking and large business houses offer. We cannot help hoping that this will come in time, though it may not be yet near. Still there are plenty of excellent men quite ready to take the chances, but they do not offer themselves, Mr. Strong will remember, through Milholland or the Committee of Thirty.

What is of most importance in the near future is the Police Department and the Street-Cleaning Bureau. These are the two departments of the municipal government in which large bodies of men have to work under authority and discipline. All experience, both public and private, requires that these bodies should be ruled in what, for want of a better term, we are obliged to call military fashion—that is, they must be commanded as men are commanded who are organized for fighting purposes. In getting them to do their work we must, therefore, use the experience of men who command soldiers, or of large contractors—that is, command not necessarily fighting men, but men who have to be punctual, orderly, obedient, and faithful to their duty. Gilroy's theory that the streets can be cleaned by old fellows who would otherwise go to the almshouse, under the direction of an old Tammany rooster like Brennan, must be wholly discarded. The street-cleaning force and the police force must be *disciplined* forces, and the best jokes of history are those which record the efforts of committees and commissions to command such forces, especially committees of politicians. The history of our own police force, as well as of our street-cleaning force, under such direction, is in fact, a huge joke. A street-cleaning force that costs two millions and does not clean the streets, and a police force which costs five millions and sells permits to commit crime are, of course, a side-splitting pleasantry. But the time for laughing is gone by. The time for business has arrived.

A conference of the Republicans elected to the State Senate has just been held at Indianapolis, at which there was a general agreement in favor of an apportionment which shall be free from gerrymandering, and a law putting all the State institutions under the direction of non-partisan boards, to be appointed by the Governor (who is now a Democrat), instead of treating these offices as party spoils; and against any change whatever in the excellent election law, except a provision allowing each party which runs a ticket to have watchers at the count. This last decision is in itself a great gain, for ever since a Democratic Legislature adopted the Australian system and thus stopped the "blocks of five" business, Republican politicians of the baser sort have been threatening to repeal or emasculate the law as soon as they got control of the Legislature. The readiness to introduce the non-partisan principle in the State institutions, and to initiate the reform when a Governor of the opposite party will have the first appointments, is also a tremendous gain.

Populism has been overthrown in Colorado, but there is evidently still abundant scope for the work of reform in that State. A petition signed by the presidents of national banks and the heads of great business establishments to the number of between forty and fifty was presented to the Governor on Monday, asking that the enforcement of the laws against gambling be suspended, and that the crime be allowed "under such regulations and surveillance as the Police Department may prescribe." The reasons assigned by the petitioners are that "it is detrimental to the business interests of the city of Denver to compel gambling halls to remain closed; that many buildings and parts of buildings are rendered tenantless and bring in no rent to owners thereof; and that a large amount of money is kept from coming into the city of Denver and being put into circulation by reason of such closing; and that trade and all kinds of business are affected thereby." This is the sort of thing that really takes one's breath away, and makes him rub his eyes to see if he is reading the despatch straight. Gov. Waite is as bad a demagogue as we have seen in our politics for many a day, but he figured as a statesman when he refused the request of the leading business men of the capital to condone law-breaking in order to help trade.

The report of the commission sent to investigate the condition of affairs in the Indian Territory recommends radical measures in dealing with the civilized Indians, so called, but it cannot be said that they are more radical than the situation demands. The commission affirms, what every reader of newspapers knows to be true, that government in the Indian Territory has broken down. Neither life nor property is secure. In one tribe alone more than fifty murders were committed within two months, yet no one was brought to justice. The property rights of the individual Indians,

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ly guaranteed under the treaties, ɔen set aside by chicane and vio- ɔo that, for example, 61 citizens in ɔe numbering 14,632 have enclosed w hold more than one-third of the ıelonging to the tribe in severalty. the general reign of terror existing y parts of the Territory, including ·ked outrages and robberies by ma- g gangs, the holding-up of trains, e looting of towns, the commission ɔ add nothing to what is now com- ıowledge.

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ew of this well-known and alarm- ıdition of things, the commission ·s that it is the plain duty of the States to recover the domain l to the Indians. Its argu- ; that the treaties were in the na- a conveyance in trust, and that by ;rant failure of the Indians to exe- e trust, all their rights have lapsed. ·cise merit and legality of this argu- e leave it to the proper authorities upon. But all must agree that the States cannot go on tolerating a ɔn of open anarchy over a large of country within its territory. ty of putting an end to it is so strong, ground of the general principles of ment and public safety and decen- ıt we have no doubt a legal and ıtional way of doing so will be The motives are so clearly those highest public interest that it be said to be another case of a ıl government overriding the treaty of helpless Indians. In this respect rtunate that the first name signed report is that of ex-Senator Dawes, labors in the Senate and out of it ılf of the Indians put him beyond on of any desire except for their own It will be an urgent duty of the istration and of Congress to act ly on this report, and bring about storation of law and order in the Territory.

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ntion is called by the *Railroad te* to the fact that the "tramp ce" does not exist on the Canadian ys, or exists only in the mildest The reason is very simple. It is ıe law is enforced against tramps in a, while in the United States it is)runk and disorderly persons and all ıts, including those who steal rides ins, are arrested and brought be- he nearest magistrate. Moreover, tramp is found in a car or breaking a .e gets one year in State's prison; if ıls anything, he gets from seven to ɔn years in the penitentiary. By the al code any one is made guilty of lictable offence and liable to two imprisonment who steals a ticket or or passage on any railroad or similar conveyance. Any one is liable to en years' imprisonment who steals ng in or from any railroad-station or building or any vehicle on a railroad." Placing obstructions on railroads and train-wrecking are punishable by imprisonment for life. All these penalties are promptly and rigidly enforced, with the result that the boozing fraternity migrate to "the States" in short order. Here their usual punishment is a polite request to go on to the next town, accompanied with a supply of provisions sufficient to carry them there.

President Andrews has just published a history of the United States in two volumes, and in it he does a noble bit of work for silver. On page 276 of volume ii. he records the fact that the silver dollar was "silently demonetized" in 1873. He adds that the great depreciation of silver which followed was only "apparent," inasmuch as there was no real decline of the purchasing power of silver "even in the form of bullion," but only a "rise in the value of gold." The peculiar deadliness of this lies, of course, in the fact that it is history. If it were mere assertion, or controversy, or stump-speaking, something might be said in rejoinder, but no one will want to confess himself such an ignoramus as not to know what "history teaches," or what "we find in the books," or what "President Andrews, who has carefully investigated the subject, says in his scholarly history," etc. Everybody knows that the appeal to history is an end of argument, and President Andrews has been very shrewd in leaving the other fellows to argue while himself attending to the history. Since Macaulay wrote his "huge Whig pamphlet" in the shape of a history of England, we know of nothing so clever. Our only fear is that other controversialists will seize upon this effective method of shutting the mouths of their opponents, and so tend to bring it into disrepute. There are terrible possibilities in a McKinley history of the United States, with fairy tales like the mysterious import of $200,000,000 in gold given the dignity of "historic fact," or in a John Jasper history, with a sober record of observations made in the latter half of the nineteenth century going to show that the sun "do move."

The movement in the Presbyterian church to assume closer oversight of theological education appears to have received a serious check. The General Assembly urged the trustees of the various Presbyterian seminaries to turn over their funds and powers to it, so that the appointment of professors and control over their salaries might be vested in the Assembly direct. But the directors of Auburn and of Chicago seminaries met last week and declined to do anything of the kind. Union Seminary had before cut loose from all connection with the Assembly, and even if Princeton and Allegheny now obey orders, they will be almost alone in so doing. At present the Assembly has a veto only on the appointment of professors, and no remedy in the case of a man whose heresies develop after appointment. This was what kept the Assembly's hands tied so long in the case of Prof. Briggs. It had approved his original appointment, and had to sit by helpless all the years, until the blessed chance of his transfer to another chair gave it an opportunity to close in on him. To prevent the possibility of another such experience, the plan was brought forward and pushed through the Assembly to take over the seminaries bodily, so that any professor might at any time be hauled up, examined as to his orthodoxy, censured, "docked" in his pay, or dismissed. But it seems that the seminaries refuse to be swallowed at one gulp.

The great difficulty about the Armenian massacres is the difficulty of getting correct intelligence. There is a great deal of Turkish oppression going on in those remote regions, aggravated by the marauding and kidnapping of the Kurds, and there is intense hatred between the Christian and Mussulman populations; and both sides, of course, exaggerate this feeling for the purpose of working on European opinion. But that the Turkish oppression is frightful there can be no doubt, and it is highly probable that some Armenian resistance was punished by wholesale massacre. This has been the Turkish mode of repressing insubordination of any kind on the part of its Christian subjects ever since the Turks began to have any Christian subjects. They have perpetrated these massacres now and again in every part of their dominions. That of Scio in 1822 made a profound impression on Christendom, but that of Bulgaria in 1876 was nearly as bad, but would have passed comparatively unnoticed if Mr. Schuyler and Mr. McGahan had not happened to be on the spot. The truth is that there are no remedies for Turkish rule but abolition. The Armenians, once a warlike people, and furnishing some good soldiers to the Russian service, have, through ages of oppression, become unwarlike and are incapable of effecting their own deliverance. It will probably come some day from Russian interference. In letting the Turks have a free hand in that region the western Powers are playing into Russian hands. But there is little use in remonstrating with the Turks or exposing them, and their own press, even the European version of it, is muzzled by censorship such as has not been seen in Europe since the middle ages. One of the horrible incidents of Turkish rule from which the Armenians suffer severely is the insecurity of their young women. The kidnapping of Christian girls is a time-honored Turkish pastime, and keeps the Christian parents of pretty daughters in horrible anxiety. Down to the emancipation of Bulgaria, the entrance of Turks, especially high official Turks, into a Christian village in that province was always a signal for the close concealment of the young women.

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REFORM IN THE POST-OFFICE.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL BISSELL'S annual report, just made public, discusses the relations of the post-office to politics in a fashion which will make the hide-bound partisans all over the country open their eyes in astonishment. Hitherto no postmaster-general has had the courage to speak the plain truth about this matter in a public report, though more than one has in private condemned the present vicious and senseless system without mercy.

Many of Mr. Bissell's critics, including some who have the kindest regard for him personally and feel the warmest interest in his success in office, have regretted that he did not, at the outset of his career as postmaster-general, snap his fingers at precedent and refuse to take any part in the reallotment of post-offices. Some one in his position will have to do it, and the question has often been asked, Will any postmaster-general who succeeds him be surrounded with conditions more conducive to independence? Mr. Bissell, however, is not a radical or a pioneer by nature; he is eminently a man of caution, who never makes a forward movement without studying the field and feeling the ground before him, so that he will not have to counteract the moral effect of his advance by a speedy retreat. In dealing with the minor post-offices, therefore, he has insisted upon the necessity of reforming public opinion as preliminary to any successful reform of administrative practice. He took what many more aggressive reformers considered a backward step when, of his own accord and without any express sanction of law, he gave to the fourth-class postmasters a definite tenure of four years instead of hustling one lot out and another lot in as fast as the clerks at the department could prepare the papers and one of his assistants sign them. To the outside world this appeared like simply beating about the bush, because the term of each postmaster appointed during a previous administration would necessarily expire during the present one, and the sweep would therefore be clean in the long run. From the point of view of Mr. Bissell, however, seated in Washington at the confluence of all the streams of pressure, and at the headwaters of the huge flood of patronage, it was a distinct advance upon former methods. His opinion was strengthened, certainly, by the excitement which it caused among the petty local bosses who visited the capital to "fix things up" for their home post-offices, and were turned away with the frigid statement that the term of one postmaster would not expire for six months yet; that of another not for a year; that a third, if he behaved himself, would serve till January, 1897, and so forth. It was a revelation to the "party workers," and the indignation it aroused among them was a sufficient evidence that it marked the beginning of a new era.

But while the bosses were complaining, the "plain people" were keeping very silent. Here and there some fellow in private life who had the spoils poison in his blood, could not resist the temptation to write a vituperative letter to the department; the rule, however, was the other way, and not a few facts came to notice in Washington which proved that the substitution of an orderly for a chaotic process was appreciated by the patrons of the little offices, and that it was paving the way for something still better in the future. Having allowed this leaven to work in the public mind for a year, the postmaster-general follows it with an argument—ostensibly addressed to the President, but actually to the American people—in favor of doing away with terms altogether in these smaller places, and putting the fourth-class post-offices everywhere on a business instead of a political footing. He suggests that the bill introduced in the Fifty-first Congress by Mr. Lodge of Massachusetts, and in the Fifty-second and Fifty-third by Mr. Andrew and Dr. Everett respectively, may afford a basis, and perhaps something better than a mere basis, for legislation designed to take this class of offices out of politics altogether.

The spoils theory, on which the demand for a redistribution of post-offices by every new administration is founded, Mr. Bissell evidently considers outside the pale of serious discussion. He wastes no time on that, or on its less dangerous twin—the absurd notion that only the members of one party are capable, or honest, or otherwise worthy to execute a public trust. The whole weight of his argument is thrown upon the third and most persistent of the fallacies put forth in defence of the existing practice—the notion that the people of the United States, when they turn the government over from the keeping of one party to that of another, demand a "change" from top to bottom of the administrative staff. Mr. Bissell points out how thoroughly undemocratic and perversive of both home rule and majority rule this theory is. Take a community, for example, containing one hundred voters, eighty of whom cast Republican ballots in 1892: what logic is there in compelling these eighty Republicans to submit to a change of postmaster at the dictation of twenty Democrats—or, possibly, of only ten Democrats, if we suppose the remaining ten of the opposition to be made up of Prohibitionists, Populists, A. P. A.'s, and Independents? It is the spectacle of the tail wagging the dog with a vengeance!

This is a view of the case which few narrow partisans ever take until it is brought home to them by some case in which they happen to be hard hit themselves. It is of broad application, moreover. The Republicans have been the sufferers from the undemocratic practice within the last eighteen months; beginning with March, 1897, it may be the Democrats who will have to swallow the dose. If the Southern Democratic majority in the present Congress, therefore, has any foresight, guard against the evil day as we can by promoting such legislation spare it the sight again of every in the South having forced upon petty boss, picked from the mine its postmaster. It was this th Southerners complained of so under Wanamaker; it is the same that they will have cause to comp under somebody else if the Repu come back again into power, unless meantime legislation can be ena sweep the whole miserable busines the way.

The coming session is the sho and it is a common complaint that can be done at a short session. was it a short session—that of 1882 which the present civil-service l passed. Political conditions in th try at large were not unlike those ing now. The Republicans, who we going out of power, were shrewd to see where they could strike a b good government and for their own at the same time. Are the Dem equally wise?

CONSULAR REFORM.

THE attention of the presidents chambers of commerce or boards c of our principal cities was recently to the statement by Admiral Erben ed in the *Evening Post* last Sept about the general inefficiency consular service as he had obser and the damage which American suffers from such incompetenc seems a very appropriate time to r vigorous effort to secure the appoi of better consuls, now that we have a long step forward in the revision customs duties, and in this way prepared ourselves to secure a large of the world's trade. It seems als evident that no more powerful in in rescuing the consular service fro spoils politicians can be had tha active coöperation of the trade org tions of the country. If these org tions make something of a simult and united demand for a better co system, they will obtain a hear Washington where individual effo newspaper argument might fail.

A step in this direction was taken directors of the Boston Merchants' ciation more than a year ago; and executive committee, to whom the ter was referred, reported that "the consular service is emphatically bus and the ground plan upon which it be conducted should be the same as upon which business in general is ducted." President Byers of the ver Chamber of Commerce writes have long considered our consular se a disgrace to the nation, and I see no ter course for its reform than to con strictly to civil-service rules. We sh pattern after the English system i

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civil service." President Clough of the St. Paul Chamber of Commerce writes: "I shall take great pleasure in laying the matter before the Chamber. Whatever will tend to promote the commercial interest of the country will be sure of our support." President Levering of the Baltimore Board of Trade writes: "I quite agree with you as to the importance of an improvement in our consular service, and that it is a matter in which the various commercial bodies of our country should take a practical interest." Other letters received in connection with the Erben circular are of a similar import.

An obstacle to a radical reform of our consular system is found in the federal Constitution itself, which names consuls among the officers whom the President "shall nominate and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint." No law prescribing qualifications for consular offices, determining their tenure of office, and limiting the gounds for their removal, can, therefore, be passed by Congress. On the other hand, there is nothing in the Constitution or the laws to prevent any President from setting up for himself, or having some body like the Civil-Service Commission prepare for him, a code of rules under which consuls would be appointed after a test of their capability, promotions be made on merit, and removals be permitted only for cause. The present civil-service rules were, when first established, declared by their opponents to be an infringement on the President's constitutional powers, but they have outgrown this criticism. Just as these rules have strengthened the hands of every new-coming President, regardless of the checks on the spoilsmen which he might have established of his own volition, so an act of legislation in regard to consulships, such as the Morgan bill of the last session, would go a good way toward placing the reform on a permanent basis. The Morgan bill authorizes the President to appoint a commission consisting of the secretary of state, two Senators, and two Representatives, to assist him in reorganizing the Department of State and the consular and diplomatic service. It provides that two-thirds of the present consular and diplomatic officers shall be gradually recalled within three years, and that a board of examiners appointed by the President, to include two professors of law from two leading universities of the United States, and two officers of the Department of State, shall determine the methods of examination for entrance and promotion in the service; and that all admittance by examination shall be to positions in the lowest grade, with promotions in regular order.

An incoming President can defy the hordes of office-seekers much more successfully if he is backed by an appointive system which Congress has approved than if he has to oppose them with his own will alone. It would doubtless, too, be just as impossible for the spoilsmen to gain possession of the consulships after they had been a few years beyond their reach, as it has been for the place-hunters at Washington to get hold once more of the department positions; and it is not at all improbable that, while an amendment to the Constitution placing the consulships irrevocably beyond the place-hunters' reach could not secure ratification at this time, a demonstration to our business communities of the practical benefit to trade of a body of consuls fitted for their positions would compel the law-makers, State and national, to give the new system their approval.

Congress has it in its power to do much good for the foreign service in framing the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill. The form of appropriation has compelled a consul to be nominated every time to a specific position, and his bond has been made out to cover only the office with which his name is associated. Thus, if a consul has given a bond to cover his duties at Leipsic, and, because of good service, merits a promotion to Bremen, a new bond would be required of him—something not easy to arrange while he is in Europe and his bondsmen in this country. This has been one excuse for appointing new men to good places when vacancies have occurred, rather than filling these places by promotion. If there was nothing in the way of nominating men simply as ambassadors, ministers, consuls, etc., without specifying their destinations when their name went to the Senate, then the President, having the good of the service wholly at heart, could shift them about, taking advantage of their experience, and thus give to this country a corps of foreign officers as valuable as is the corps which has done so much to build up British trade throughout the world.

THE NEW FOOTBALL.

THE critics of football last year, although much abused, had sufficient influence on the amateurs of the game to bring about a change in the rules. We were told the game had been made more "open," and that the Napoleonic operation of breaking the enemy's ranks with a "wedge" would be no longer resorted to; that more reliance would be placed on agility and less on avoirdupois. But the new football appears to be very like the new Tammany: "Plus on change, plus c'est la même chose." The game on Saturday at Springfield between the two great teams of Harvard and Yale was by the testimony—unanimous, as far as our knowledge goes—of spectators and newspapers, the most brutal ever witnessed in the United States. There are few members of either university—we trust there are none—who have not hung their heads for shame in talking over it or thinking of it.

In the first place, we respectfully ask the governing bodies of all colleges what they have to say for a game between youths presumably engaged in the cultivation of the liberal arts, which needs among its preliminaries a supply on the field of litters and surgeons? Such preparations are not only brutal but brutalizing. How any spectator, especially any woman, can witness them without a shudder, so distinctly do they recall the duelling field and the prize-ring, we are unable to understand. But that they are necessary and proper under the circumstances the result showed. There were actually seven casualties among twenty-two men who began the game. This is nearly 33 per cent. of the combatants—a larger proportion than among the Federals at Cold Harbor (the bloodiest battle of modern times) and much larger than at Waterloo or at Gravelotte. What has American culture and civilization to say to this mode of training our youth? "Brewer was so badly injured that he had to be taken off the field crying with mortification." Wrightington fell, and, as he lay on the ground, Hinkey, captain of the Yale men, jumped on him with both knees, breaking his collarbone. Beard was next turned over to the doctors. Hallowell had his nose broken. Murphy was soon badly injured and taken off the field on a stretcher unconscious, with concussion of the brain. Butterworth, who is said to have nearly lost an eye, soon followed. Add that there was a great deal of "slugging"—that is, striking with the fist and kicking—which was not perceived and punished by the umpires, though two men were ruled out for it.

In the dialectics to which the game has given rise, we have had a nice distinction drawn by some athletic logician between football and the prize-ring. His contention was that while the object of the pugilist in the ring was to disable or injure his antagonist, the object of the football player was simply to win the game. But the pugilist does not seek to injure his antagonist more than is necessary to make him throw up the sponge. If he can "knock him out" by a good body blow in the first round, he is quite content. He would rather not have to draw his claret and close his peepers and mash his smeller and break his breadbasket. What he wants is the belt, the championship, the stakes, and his share of the gate money. It is true he plays a game which consists in wasting his adversary's strength so that he can no longer resist. But how does this differ from college football? Is not the slugging of the enemy's best men so as to close their eyes, strain their hips, break their noses, and concuss their brains, and thus compel them to withdraw from the field, exactly the pugilist's policy? In short, is not the distinction between the ring and college football as played on Saturday a distinction without a difference? Is not the attempt to make a difference a bit of sophistry of which the champions of the game ought to be ashamed?

It may be laid down as a sound rule among civilized people, that games which may be won by disabling your adversary,

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or wearing out his strength, or killing him, ought to be prohibited, at all events among its youth. Swiftness of foot, skill and agility, quickness of sight, and cunning of hands, are things to be encouraged in education. The use of brute force against an unequally matched antagonist, on the other hand, is one of the most debauching influences to which a young man can be exposed. The hurling of masses of highly trained athletes against one another with intent to overcome by mere weight or kicking or cuffing, without the possibility of the rigid superintendence which the referee exercises in the prize-ring, cannot fail to blunt the sensibilities of young men, stimulate their bad passions, and drown their sense of fairness. When this is done in the sight of thousands, under the stimulation of their frantic cheers and encouragement, and in full view of the stretchers which carry their fellows from the field, for aught they know, disabled for life, how, in the name of common sense, does it differ in moral influence from the Roman arena?

The pretence which has been put forward by people who ought to know better, some of them college professors, that there is in this game as now played a useful preparation for modern life, is one of the saddest parts of the whole business. If it be so, all students, and not a highly trained eleven only, ought to be compelled to play it. The notion that it cultivates self-restraint, which some have preached, has a touch of humor in it, as Hinkey must have felt when he was jumping on the prostrate Wrightington, or somebody else when he was breaking Hallowell's nose. The encouraging circumstance amid all this subterfuge and sophistry is that most of the spectators of Saturday came away disgusted. Women said they would attend such spectacles no more, and the referee for the Yale-Princeton game next Saturday, Dr. W. A. Brooks, has refused to act. Help from the colleges in ending this great scandal does not seem easy to get, so keen is the competition for students, and so powerful the influence of football victories on youthful minds. We must therefore appeal to American parents to keep their sons out of the game as long as it is anything more than one of swiftness and agility.

RUSSIAN POLICY IN CENTRAL ASIA.

THIRTY years ago this month Prince Gortchakoff sent to the European courts his memorable circular note of November 21, 1864, defining the Russian policy in Central Asia. He asserted that as the empire had been "brought into contact with half-savage nomad peoples possessing no social organization," it was forced, "in the interest of the security of its frontier and its commercial relations, to exercise a certain ascendancy over these undesirable neighbors." After a frank recital of the measures which would be taken to put an end to acts of pillage, and a distinct statement that the conquest would continue till cultivated country was reached, he says that the motive of the Czar in annexing these territories "consists not in extending beyond all reasonable bounds the regions under his sceptre, but in giving a solid basis to his rule in guaranteeing their security and in developing their social organization, their commerce, their well-being, and their civilization." This manifesto was called out by the uneasiness of England at the Russian advance in Turkistan and the preparations for the conquest of the khanates. It may also have been intended indirectly as a defence of the war in the Caucasus, which had just been brought to a close by the submission of the last of the independent Circassian tribes. The gallant defence of these mountaineers under Schamyl had excited the sympathy of Englishmen, who, in admiration of their bravery, had lost sight of the fact that they were mere savages, who lived by plunder and the infamous sale of their daughters to Moslem harems.

Sufficient time has elapsed since the issue of the note to enable us to judge whether or not it was a true statement of Russian policy, or merely a specious document, intended, as was asserted, to cloak the ambitious designs of the Czar on India. The condition of the Caucasus at that time was such that it was simply a heavy burden upon the empire. The mountain regions, which for centuries had been the seat of continual tribal wars, were rendered still more desolate by the emigration of a large part of the inhabitants to Turkey. The constant raids of the Circassians had prevented the settlement and cultivation of the fertile plains to the north of the mountains. There had been progress in Georgia, which had been annexed at the beginning of the century, but the growth was very slow, from the want of safe and easy means of communication with Europe. A rough carriage road, often impassable for days in winter, connected Tiflis with the Black Sea; elsewhere there were only foot or bridle-paths crossed by innumerable unbridged mountain torrents. Poti, the most important port, was a squalid settlement in a marsh, with a commerce for which a small river steamer, a few sailing craft, and barges were more than sufficient. On the Caspian the conditions were very similar. An English traveller, giving an itinerary of a journey made in 1871, says that from March to October inclusive a steamer touched once a week at the various ports, and a fortnightly trip was made from Baku to the opposite shore. This place was noted simply for its Parsi temple, and the naphtha from its oil-wells still flowed uselessly into the sea, an object only of idle curiosity or of superstitious worship.

The first task of the Russian army, after the cessation of hostilities, was the construction of roads and especially of a railway from Poti through Tiflis to Baku, which was completed in 1883. A second line connecting the two seas but running north of the Caucasus Mountains was finished last year. Docks were built and extensive improvements made in the harbor of Poti, as well as at Batum, after that place had been acquired from the Turks. Concessions were made to companies to work the oil-wells of Baku. Experimental agricultural stations were founded for the purpose of introducing the cultivation of tea and cotton and other useful plants and trees in the south, while the raising of cereals and the planting of vineyards were encouraged in the north. Schools, also, both native and Russian, were established throughout the new province.

What has been the result of these civilizing measures? Batum, which in 1878 was a Turkish fishing village, is now a well-built town of 20,000 inhabitants with a boulevard and park. At its massive docks, not yet completed, steamers of 6,000 tons can lie and receive their lading in thirty-six hours. There are twenty-four oil-exporting firms, one of which employs 2,500 men and has a plant capable of manufacturing and filling 40,000 oil-chests in a day of sixteen hours. A great fleet of vessels took last year, besides other merchandise, three hundred and a quarter millions of gallons of oil to the markets of Europe, North Africa, and the East Indies. A similar, though not so great, change has been wrought in Poti. Its swamps are being gradually reclaimed, and a town with broad paved streets, shaded by poplars and lined with houses in gardens, has taken the place of the huts built on piles. Among its attractions are a botanical garden maintained entirely by the pupils of an agricultural school. Its single steamer has already become a hundred, more than thirty thousand tons of manganese having been exported in 1893 to this country alone. Novorossiisk, the Black Sea terminus of the northern transcaucasian railway, which in 1864 was a heap of uninhabited ruins, has become, from its proximity to the great wheat-fields of the Kuban and the recently discovered oil-wells of Grozni, a port with a commerce which grows with amazing rapidity. From those plains which, thirty years ago, the Circassian raiders had kept from cultivation, more than a quarter of the whole wheat crop of Russia, besides 61,000,000 bushels of other cereals, was harvested in 1892. In this same year 7,705 steamers and 5,024 sailing vessels entered the Caspian ports, and Baku, a town of 15,000 inhabitants in 1883, when the railway was opened, had become a city with a population of 103,000. The education of the people, according to the official report for 1891, is provided for by 3,537 schools of various grades from the primary to the professional schools, lyceums, and gymnasia.

These facts imply, of course, security to life and property, and with this necessarily go a higher standard of living, an increase of population—it has more than doubled in the province of Kuban in ten years—

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and the cultivation of the land in the vicinity of the towns and railways. In the interior mountain country, progress in this direction is slow, but along the Pontic seaboard the almost unbroken forest is giving place rapidly to gardens, farms, plantations, and vineyards.

Hard as was the task of Russia in civilizing Caucasia, it was still harder in civilizing Central Asia. Here there was no abounding source of wealth like the oil-wells of Baku and the wheat-fields of Kuban. The greater part of the country consisted either of lofty mountain regions or of extensive deserts dotted here and there with oases, veritable islands in a sea of sand. Six centuries ago they had been the seat of the empire of Timur, and had sustained an immense population. At the siege of the city of Merv in 1221 700,000 of its inhabitants are said to have perished. When it was captured by the Russians, there was not a house, only tents, in the whole oasis. These cultivable tracts had greatly shrunken, and in many instances entirely disappeared—the result of centuries of war and misrule. The inhabitants, both nomad and sedentary, Turkoman and Kirghiz, were fanatical Mohammedans and held thousands of Christian slaves, captured in border raids or from caravans. Europe was at this moment ringing with applause at Vámbéry's bravery in venturing among them even when disguised as a dervish.

The work of developing the resources of these regions began not, as in the Caucasus, with road-building, but with the repair of the ancient irrigation works and the construction of new ones. Numerous oases were created in this way at the foot of the lofty Ala-Taou and Alexander ranges, where the streams fed by the snows and glaciers lost themselves in the desert. Trees were planted along the canals, and villages built for the colonists, Russians, Jews, German Mennonites, and Chinese Mohammedans. To each Russian family a house was given and a hundred and fifty acres of irrigated land. A different course was pursued with the cultivated territory, as Samarcand and Ferganah. Here colonization was abandoned, after an unsuccessful attempt, and every effort was made to foster the native industries. To improve the cotton, for instance, which had been grown for ages in small quantities, a scientific commission was sent to the United States, which brought back seeds and plants suited to the soil and climate of Turkistan, together with machinery for caring for the crop. Schools for instruction in agriculture and arboriculture also were established in many places. To secure a market for the products of these fertile regions, as well as for military reasons, a railway was built from the Caspian Sea to Samarcand, and is now nearly completed to Tashkend.

What have been the results of these measures in Turkistan, a considerable part of which has not been in the Russian possession more than ten years? A single fact will suffice to show the growth in one direction. The only water-supply for the oases in which are the cities of Samarcand and Bokhara is the river Zerafshan, the former being nearest the source. The population and the amount of cultivated land have so increased, however, and so many new oases have been made along the upper course of the river, that its water is nearly exhausted before it reaches Bokhara, and this place, with a threefold greater population than in Vámbéry's time, is literally dying with thirst. The only remedy is to dig a canal through the desert two hundred miles to the Oxus, and this stupendous work, according to the latest available accounts, apparently has already begun. The cotton crop has increased enormously, the amount raised in Ferganah alone in 1893 being over two million hundredweight, half of which is American cotton. The crop returns for Samarcand for 1892 show half a million hundredweight of cotton, a million and a quarter hundredweight of raisins, and 8,640,000 quarters of cereals—an increase of two and a half millions over the previous year.

The industrial development of Turkistan to which these facts, chosen from a multitude, testify, shows that the Turkomans only needed a firm and just government to become peaceful and industrious. This seems to be true not merely of the cultivators of the soil and the handicraftsmen, but of the nomads. A recent English traveller in this region reports that he found a Russian colonel with eight native attendants administering a district of 30,000 persons "who quite recently were robbers and thieves by profession." Even so strong a Russophobist as Mr. Curzon cannot withhold his praise, though given somewhat grudgingly, for the civilizing influence of Russia in Central Asia. The army has done everything here and in Caucasia. Its officers have drawn the plans for roads, harbors, and irrigation works, and the soldiers have executed them. This is the bright side of Hosea Biglow's truism, that

> "—civlyzation *doos* git forrid
> Sometimes upon a powder-cart."

WORKING WITH FROUDE ON *FRASER'S MAGAZINE*.—II.

NEW YORK, November, 1894.

ON English questions Froude decidedly separated from Carlyle when the Tories were being "educated" by "the man they call Dizzy"—to remember Carlyle's contemptuous phrase for the statesman who presently offered him a title with wealth to support it. I find an undated note from Froude written about that time in which he says:

"Unless I am mistaken, we are observing the death-struggle of the great anti-reform party in England. Merchants and such like have become so rich, by such bad means, that they are in terror of the people; and the conflict, which is only beginning, will witness changes which no one living can foresee."

Froude's letters never contain the year in which they were written, and I cannot trace the dates of those from which I make the subjoined extracts. The lectures mentioned in the next extract were before the Philosophical Institutions of Hull and Newcastle-on-Tyne:

"I am here [Hull] lecturing for a day or two. I shall be at Newcastle, I hope, the beginning of next month. I go to Spain for five or six months afterwards, so that I shall be absent during the session—which will be a stormy one. A strongly democratic measure will be pressed eventually, but not just yet. The pressure from below is not great at present; but the Grandees are smitten with confusion of counsels, and do not know what they would be at. The Government, so far as they have any purpose, do *not*, I understand, mean to take up the *Alabama* question."

"The originality in the author of 'Margaret' [Sylvester Judd, on whom a paper of mine appeared in *Fraser*, July, 1867] I can recognize, and admire most heartily, and so I can of Lowell; but these new people fill their sails with the whirlwinds of the last six years, and I am still heretic enough to regard all that, not as a perennial trade wind of humanity, but as a local tornado generated by temporary electricity. Nothing violent is long-lived, and these all-absorbing, all-enveloping passions blaze like prairie fires, preparing the ground, indeed, for a future crop, but not things in themselves proper to sympathize with. I do not recognize *poetry* in either of your friends except Howells—who has caught the disease most mildly." (Howells's "Margaret Garner" is the poem alluded to. The other pieces were fugitive verses which I have forgotten.)

"I have looked through Mr. Howells's [article]. He has much ability, and as a book or part of a book [his paper] might be valuable. A little now and then about old Italy would do well for us [*Fraser*], but I cannot make room for forty pages."

"I have a long letter from Bret Harte this morning. He talks of paying us a visit at the beginning of next month. Scotland gives him rheumatism, and he would like to be exchanged to England. [Froude is writing from Kingsbridge.] Carlyle I believe to be in London. The last news we heard was that he was impatient to be there. The Doctor [John Carlyle] at that time was still alive, and your letter brings the first information that he is gone. The effect of it on Carlyle, I expect, will only be to irritate him still more at the length of his own stay in a world which has no interest left for him."

"Mr. Sanborn's paper is very interesting indeed. I cannot use it in July, but it shall have a place on the earliest opportunity. You could not pay us a visit [at Crogen House, Corwen, Wales] when I wanted you in April, but I *must* show you our antiquities some time this summer. The remnants of the old wooden Sea Horn, or whatever it was, on which Derfel Gadern, the Welsh St George, sate for adoration before the Reformation, is one of the most curious pieces of antiquity in the Island. Derfel Gadern wore armour; that is all we know about him. He was brought to London by Henry VIII.'s visitors. He was split in pieces—being made of oak like to horn—and the chips were used to burn Father Forest in Smithfield, when Latimer preached the sermon—'playing the fool,' so he himself described it, 'after his accustomed manner.' It is due to Latimer to say that he tried hard to prevent the burning." (Derfel Gadern was an ancient wooden image, concerning which there was a Welsh prophecy that it would some day "burn a bishop." The persecutors seized the occasion to burn the idol along with the recusant.)

In acknowledgment of a little book on Christianity, in which it was maintained that there was no evidence of Jesus having sprung from a poor or peasant family, Froude wrote:

"As addressed to those who already believe rightly in these matters, it will be full of interest and instruction. It will not convert, but that you do not expect. I cannot quite reconcile myself to a *rich* Christ. Merivale [the Roman historian] insisted once to me that the Disciples were Jews of good family and position; and when I said they were fishermen—'Fishermen,' he said; 'yes, like you and me. They had their villas on the lake and went out fishing for their amusement.' He felt like you that they were cultivated and educated men, or they could not have done what they did. You and he may be right, and my hesitation may be only

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prejudice. You don't allude to the visit of the young Greek to our Lady which you once suggested to me, but you say enough to set the world thinking. . . . I am glad you are pleased with *Divus Cæsar* [one of his 'Short Studies']. It has been on my mind since 1850, and belongs, as you see, to the old cycle of ideas."

"My French is so indifferent that I shall be of no service. For conversational purposes I can command only a traveller's *patois*, and Renan can speak no English. If you really want me under such conditions, you must let me know again by post. I have already declined dinners on the same ground. Either German or Spanish I could do with tolerably—but I was mistaught French when young, and have never had the energy to reinstate myself."

"I shall enjoy breakfasting with you on the 8th very much indeed. I have not yet met Lowell, and I shall be particularly pleased to make his acquaintance."

"I hope and believe that a time will come when there will no longer be Englishmen and Americans, but we shall be of one heart and mind, and perhaps of one name."

"I almost fear that English interest in Emerson will hardly bear so large a demand upon it. We should like to hear more of his opinions on later matters. We should not care to follow in very great detail the history of the growth of his mind. If you have done the second article, would you not let me have that first?"

"I have read [your] book almost through ['Demonology and Devil-Lore']. . . . Gladstone and those who think as he does explain the similarity of the legends of other countries with those of the Jews by the theory of the Noachian tradition. The same stories were started round the world on the dispersion of mankind which followed the business of the Tower of Babel. Assyrians, Persians, Hindoos, Greeks, Egyptians—*all had received the primitive account*, and all corrupted in their various ways. I have little to suggest, but I would like for myself to have heard more—1st, of the Greek Mysteries, out of which the Christian Sacraments grew—especially the 'bread and wine' business; 2d, of Mani and the Manicheans; 3d, of the theory that the seat of evil was matter—ὕλη—whence came the notion of the sins of the flesh. . . . I am heartily glad a second edition is called for. I shall read the book again more slowly, when something more may suggest itself."

In 1872 Froude visited America to give lectures on Irish matters, and towards the close of that year I received a letter from him ("Syracuse, October 27," where he had gone with President Andrew White) which expresses much satisfaction at his reception in New York city, notwithstanding the fury of the Irish and of the "Democratic" press:

"The Hall was crowded every night; the audiences of the very best; the applause all that vanity could desire; while privately to *me* a great many distinguished persons have expressed their delight that I have come over for such an object. But this is not the tone of the Democratic press. The Irish are furious and the —— bow down before them. . . . The Republicans generally have been good to me, *warm about England*, and as to this Irish matter, willing to let the Fenians know that their sympathies are not with them but with us. They are willing to listen to the English side of the history, and are really interested. The American Irish are mad. I have the most furious letters. Father Burke let out at me. I hit back and got the best of it, for which I am hated more than before. A public deputation waited on him to request him to annihilate me, which for his credit's sake he must try to do. . . . I cannot tell you how heartily I like America and the Americans. Nothing strikes me so much as the total absence of everything which we English are brought up to believe constitutes the American character. They are hospitable, kind, simple—essentially genuine in word and deed. I have never heard a discourteous syllable, though plenty of plain-speaking. The press shows the worst side of them, and is inferior to the men who write it. Of course, as you know, the election excitement is over. One hears strange things very openly said; and if one might judge from the general language (which probably one ought not to do) the present system of electing Presidents will not last very long. Many sensible men tell me also that a war of religions is not impossible in America. The Catholics grow stronger every day, and sooner or later it will come to blows!'"

It is to be hoped that Froude's papers will fall into careful hands. Not only are there, to my knowledge, invaluable memoranda among them that have never seen the light, but facts will be discovered which will much soften the asperities with which his own failures, as I deem them, in dealing with Carlyle's papers have been judged. That, as Tyndall said, "Froude damaged Carlyle and damned himself," is a sentence which can be revised only when the world has a true biography of both men. During the uproar excited by his Carlyle volumes, the late Lord Tennyson said in my hearing, "I once asked Carlyle why he had chosen Froude as his literary executor, and he replied, 'Because of his reticence.'" Tennyson said this with a smile, and yet he or any near acquaintance of Froude would previously have said the same thing. While he was engaged on those vast heaps of papers, with public and publishers clamorous for what required years for their adequate treatment, Froude appeared to me as one bewildered. One day he returned me a letter written by Mrs. Carlyle to me, when I was with her husband in Edinburgh (the last letter she ever wrote, which I had given to Carlyle), and he then read me from a letter of hers to her husband, many years before, an anecdote more amusing than dainty. "Now how," he said, "can I print that? It is very difficult to deal with some things in this accumulation, for unfortunately no letter seems to have been ever destroyed by the Carlyles." Had I dreamed that Froude was in danger of suppressing too little, I would have entreated him to summon in consultation Carlyle's most judicious friends, for the most part his own friends also. I know that he did attempt a consultation with Carlyle himself, but the aged author was too feeble to recur to papers that had passed out of his hand, and the interview only irritated him. Froude was an assiduous worker, and, though sociable with his circle of generally eminent persons, was something of a hermit to the world, and I feel certain that he knew not of the existence of the kindred of Carlyle's early contemporaries who were involved in his recollections or letters. He was hurried in his Carlyle work by rumors of books in preparation by which his might be too much anticipated. One writer, who had stolen the letters of Emerson to Carlyle, and other papers, would have written a biography of Carlyle before his death could he have found a publisher. Under this haste, even the proof of Carlyle's Recollections was badly revised, and, if I remember rightly, Sir Henry Taylor, serenest of poets, was described as a man of "masked vivacity" instead of "marked veracity." The friends of Carlyle were for the most part friends of Froude also, and lamented that he had not consulted some of them, before going to press, on passages involving reputations. Some old friendships were bruised, or even broken, in the miserable wrangle that followed. Froude's hair grew white, but his intellect, as his 'Erasmus' proves, lost no fibre of its force.

It is a thousand pities that so kindly, modest, and high-minded a gentleman should have unwillingly hurt the feelings of so many families, and embittered years of his own life; but it is pleasant to remember that these things were largely forgotten, and that his last years were passed among scholarly friends, and in honorable position, in the university where forty-five years ago 'The Nemesis of Faith' was formally and literally burned in the college of which he was a member.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

LONDON, November 10, 1894.

LORD ROSEBERY'S declarations at Bradford against the House of Lords announce a great change in the plan of campaign of the Liberal army. A question which it was always recognized must be dealt with some day, but which, from the pressure of smaller, easier, or apparently more urgent reforms, was never suffered to see the light of day, has suddenly been promoted to the top of the Liberal programme. The announcement was, of course, not unexpected. The summary rejection of the Irish Home-Rule Bill, the defeat of the Employers' Liability Bill, and the narrow escape of the Parish Councils Bill in the first session of the present Parliament, brought into a striking light the fact that it was idle for the country to return a Liberal majority so long as an unrepresentative body, composed of Tories in the proportion of ten to one, had the power to reject or mutilate the measures passed by the lower house. The position had become impossible, and the cause of the Commons against the Lords was left as a legacy to his party by Mr. Gladstone in his last words in Parliament.

In the House of Commons the feeling had become very bitter. After six years in opposition, a Liberal minority had been converted into a majority. Yet the majority found itself powerless. The session was one of exhausting labor, and had been prolonged to nearly twice the usual term. Yet its labor had been for the most part futile. When Liberal measures were proposed, it was openly intimated before they were discussed that the House of Lords would reject them. The country likes to see its business done, and it was felt that the impotence of a Liberal government to carry its measures was being used as a strong and effective argument with the ordinary voter against returning the Liberals to power. The parties did not meet in Parliament on equal terms. One could always throw the weight of one of the estates of the realm into the scale. The Liberal party in the country were not slow to see the situation, and, ever since the formation of Lord Rosebery's government, members of Parliament on every platform have found the House of Lords the most interesting and popular of all questions. The experience of the last session has not diminished this feeling. In the budget a Liberal reform of immense importance has indeed been passed in spite of the harassing opposition of the landed interest in the House of Commons. But that was possible only because the Lords cannot touch a money bill; and the Irish Evicted Tenants Bill, which a majority of the House of Commons deemed necessary for the peace of Ireland, was, in spite of the warnings of some of the wisest of the Unionist party, ignominiously rejected by the House of Lords.

It may be asked why the divergence between the two houses, entailing practically a deadlock against Liberal legislation, should have only now appeared intolerable, and whether the present situation is not merely temporary. The answer is that the estrangement between the House of Lords and the Liberal party has been gradual, and arises from the change in the composition of the House of Commons.

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Prior to the Reform Act of 1832, the two houses roughly represented the same class, and a large proportion of the lower house was nominated for close boroughs by members of the upper house. That act enfranchised the middle classes, and legislation proceeded mainly in their interest. With the more wealthy and influential among the middle classes, the House of Lords, where railway, brewing, and other capitalist interests are strongly represented, had still much in common. The Reform Act of 1867 extended the franchise in boroughs. But it is only since the Reform Act of 1884, which finally placed political power in the hands of the majority of the whole nation, that the political attitude of the people at large has become irreconcilable with the views of the unrepresentative house. New views, new interests, new tendencies have emerged, with which the Lords have nothing in common. No doubt Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy, culminating in the Home-Rule Bill, which Liberals have always contended is only an example of a just policy on democratic principles, has been the chief immediate cause of the conversion of the House of Lords into a solid Tory committee.

The new departure had therefore become inevitable, and, so far as appears, it is not only approved of but demanded by the party throughout the country. It is obvious, however, that there are difficulties to encounter, mainly of two kinds—the first, jealousy of rival competitors for a first place in the programme for their own particular objects (among these the Irish Nationalist allies of the Liberals, on whom they depend for their majority, are naturally the most important); the second, the difficulty of formulating the precise change in the Constitution which will command the assent of all concerned.

The majority of the Irish Nationalists, nicknamed the Anti-Parnellites, are, it is believed, prepared to support Lord Rosebery's policy. Mr. John Redmond and his followers have declared against it, and press for a dissolution on the question of home rule. His attitude is represented in a caricature in the Conservative *Pall Mall Gazette*, in which Mr. Redmond holds out a sheet containing the resolution against the House of Lords, and exclaims, "Where do *I* come in?" In both cases the decision will be taken on purely Irish grounds. There has been no fusion between the Liberal and the Nationalist parties, though there has been a loyal alliance, and individual relations of mutual cordiality and respect have no doubt multiplied. But with the Nationalists Ireland is first—Liberal aims, British aims, not second, but nowhere. If the larger party of the Nationalists adhere to the line which it is expected they will follow, they will make a large, perhaps a difficult, sacrifice of sentiment, though none of interest. They will follow their real interests. Mr. Gladstone's often quoted phrase, "Ireland blocks the way," may be said to have placed home rule at the top of the Liberal programme. It is something to consent that it should take in point of time a second place, and yield to a question which involves concentrated effort, patience, perhaps time. But the Irish leaders, always able, have advanced in statesmanship as they have gained in experience, hope, responsibility, and the estimation of their British colleagues.

Ireland has blocked the way for a long time and made the House of Commons a less pleasant place than it once was. But already it has been necessary to find a passage round the obstacle. British reforms would not be delayed for ever. Home rule for Ireland has been indelibly and finally written on the Liberal programme. It is astonishing how much enthusiasm it has evoked, considering the indirect interest which it has for the British electors. Six years of opposition, unexampled labor in Parliament, have not been spared. But there are British questions loudly crying for recognition, whose special friends claim for them not the second or the third, but each the first place—temperance, disestablishment, labor, many more. It is not possible again to put Irish home rule before the country as a single issue. As Lord Salisbury said in substance at Edinburgh, no government can prescribe the single issue at a general election, unless the electors themselves choose to concentrate their wishes on a single issue. In the case of home rule that cannot be done. The attempt to force it would be disastrous to home rule for a generation. It is impossible that the British elector should fix his mind on home rule alone, to the exclusion of those objects nearer to himself which have been crowded out during the past eight years.

There ought to be no self-deception on this point. The enthusiasm for justice to Ireland which Mr. Gladstone excited in a large portion of the nation, and which still burns, is almost a miracle, considering how unselfish, at least on a superficial view, its object is. No less wonderful is the utter failure on the other side to excite among the masses any strong prejudice against it. It might easily have arisen. The failure to excite it has always, as it appeared to me, foredoomed the opposition to home rule to eventual failure. The weight of this fact is recognized by an able Unionist journalist, Mr. Edward Dicey, in the *Nineteenth Century*. He is driven to look for a remedy in a redistribution of seats. But without an improvement in our constitutional machinery which will make both home rule and other Liberal reforms possible, the effort for Ireland as the sole and single object of consideration can no further go.

I do not dwell on other reasons which would make the prosecution of home rule as a single object untimely, such as the dissensions among Irish politicians, the damping effect of which, though much greater than is just, it would be difficult to exaggerate; and the demand, not discouraged by Gladstone himself, for adopting some plan and principle which will bring the claims of Scotland, and perhaps Wales, into line. Meanwhile, the determination of the Liberals with regard to home rule is unshaken. But they say, if we want it, we must deal with the House of Lords first.

The other main difficulty is to formulate a plan. There are second-chamber men and single-chamber men. The Prime Minister is a second-chamber man. If I am not mistaken, some other members of the Cabinet have declared themselves in favor of a single chamber. Not that there is the slightest risk of dissension in the Cabinet on that question. When a speaker on a platform refers to mending or ending the House of Lords, the loudest voices are all for ending. In the mind of the average Radical the House of Lords is associated with the hereditary principle, which he condemns, and with the constant action of the house during his lifetime, which he resents. Therefore he says, Cut it down; why cumbereth it the ground? On the other hand, there is a large body of genuine Liberal opinion which is not prepared to dispense with a second chamber, at all events not yet. That is the view of men who think that there ought to be some check, be it only temporary, on a possibly rash decision of the House of Commons, and who would not be inclined to seek such a check in any complete novelty in the Constitution, such as the referendum, the working of which it would be difficult to predict. It is most unlikely that a single-chamber scheme will be proposed by the Government after the declarations of the Prime Minister. If it were proposed, I do not believe it could be carried in the present House of Commons.

Assuming that there is to be a second chamber, how is it to be constructed? It may be taken for granted that the hereditary right to legislate must go. No reform stopping short of that would have any chance of acceptance, far less any power to rouse and interest the country. How, then, is the new chamber to be composed? That is in all ways an extremely difficult question. It is not desired to make a rival representative house—the remedy would be worse than the disease; yet any possible reconstitution of the chamber would give it more moral authority than the present house possesses. The advocates of a single chamber among well instructed politicians are disposed to say that the problem is insoluble. At all events, a solution can be found only in some limitation of the powers of the second chamber. There are not many ways in which that could be attempted. It would be extremely difficult to carry out a suggestion which has been made, that certain classes of bills should, as money bills now are, be excluded from the competence of the second chamber. A clear line can be drawn at money bills, but where else could you draw the line? Again, if a certain majority, say three-fourths, were required to make the decision of the Commons prevail, it would greatly strengthen the relative position of the second chamber, both because the majority might rarely be obtained, and because, if it were not, the second chamber would be clearly within the letter and spirit of the Constitution in rejecting any bill. There remain the plans of a final decision being taken by both chambers voting together—a plan which has not been much discussed, and which raises the question of the number of the second chamber; and the better known plan of a time limit on the veto of the upper house—a plan which presents quite different results and raises different objections according as the time proposed is long or short, three months, three years, one year, or till the end of the Parliament, but which in any form would make the Commons the predominant partner, with the constitutional right of even abolishing the second chamber, and yet might be so framed as to leave the latter a good deal of real power.

On all these points there will be, even among Liberals, a great diversity of opinion. The Government, when they have agreed upon their own plans, have the task before them of getting the country to follow them, and the first practical question is, when they propose their resolution, probably in quite general terms, how much of their detailed plan they are to disclose before they appeal to the country. Of course, the essence of the difference between proceeding by resolution and by a bill is that a resolution is purposely general. It assumes that the stage of submitting details which may be picked to pieces has not been reached. There is little doubt that, in the interests of the Government and of the success of their new policy, it is desirable that the issue should be kept as general as possible. If the country accepts the call to battle with the House of Lords, it will rally without much difficulty to the particular scheme when it is developed. The issue in itself is sufficiently broad

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and clear. I should expect the Government to take the same view.

There are, however, among leading Liberals some who think that the Government will have to go a considerable length in disclosing their plan when they propose their resolution. Anxious inquirers among the most loyal of their own followers will press for information. Some few voices may be heard from the Liberal benches, which have not been too friendly to Lord Rosebery's leadership and may not be sorry to embarrass his Government. As, in the first session of the present Parliament, assault after assault was led by Mr. Chamberlain when the House had hardly assembled, calling on the Government to explain this or disclose that before any business could be proceeded with, the same tactics may be expected, this time with even more cordial coöperation from the Conservative leaders. There will be the two-fold object of leading the Government into thorny and disputable details, among which the scheme might perish before it was born, and of wrecking the ensuing session, during which, in the absence of any unusual disturbing element, the Government may hope to pass some useful bills, doing something to complete their programme and strengthen their position before the election. C. D.

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE TREATY.

TOKYO, October 29, 1894.

THE whole controversy concerning treaty revision has turned mainly upon two or three points. First and foremost is the question of foreign jurisdiction or extra-territoriality. According to the treaties still in force, all foreigners, it need hardly be explained, are under the jurisdiction of their own courts. If an Englishman, for instance, be guilty of breaking the laws in Japan, he is tried, not by the tribunals of Japan, but in the courts and according to the laws of his own nation. By the revised treaty with England the present system is to remain in force for five years from the signing of the treaty, at the end of which time, provided the Japanese Government gives a year's notice in advance, Japan may abolish foreign jurisdiction and secure complete autonomy over the entire country, so far as Englishmen are concerned. This provision was undoubtedly inserted to give to the Japanese cabinet power to carry all the codes into operation against the opposition of a portion of the Representatives. Had England demanded the introduction of all the codes before granting full jurisdiction to Japan, the treaty would have provoked much irritation in the Parliament. As it is, the whole burden of abolishing foreign jurisdiction rests with the Japanese Government, which can thus urge the Parliament to introduce the remaining codes without giving offence on the score of foreign pressure.

Of hardly less importance as a source of irritation to Japan in the old treaties have been the limitations imposed on her tariff. Like the provision with regard to foreign jurisdiction, the limitations were once a necessity. When Japan was first thrown open to trade, Western governments saw that she could easily evade all the obligations with regard to commerce by imposing prohibitive import and export duties. Consequently, a clause was inserted in the treaties limiting the amount of duty on imports and exports to 5 per cent. But by degrees Japan felt the advantages of commercial intercourse with foreigners, and for the last twenty years she has been an eager competitor in the world's markets. For many years, therefore, there has been not the slightest ground for the fear that she would use her tariff for restricting trade. Such a policy would be simply suicidal, as foreign nations, from the very nature of Japanese exports and imports, could inflict a much deadlier blow upon Japan than she could inflict upon them. On at least one occasion in the past she has had the opportunity of revising the tariff clauses of the treaties, so far as to raise the rate of duty to 15 per cent., but she has always refused to consider the revision of this clause apart from the revision of the entire treaty, and perhaps wisely so. Moreover, though a protectionist party exists in Japan, mainly as the expression of chauvinism, public opinion has not opposed the tariff restrictions on the ground that they were economically unfair so much as that they robbed Japan of her sovereign rights. The very nations which had forced these treaties upon Japan in her hour of helplessness altered their tariff rates at will; but they refused to recognize Japan's right to do the same thing.

The new treaty with England does not at once restore tariff autonomy to Japan. The tariff is divided into two parts, one conventional, the other statutory. In the conventional tariff, between thirty-five and forty articles are enumerated of great importance to the trade of England, such as iron, cottons, and woollens, on which ad-valorem rates are to be charged varying from 5 per cent. to 15 per cent., the average being about 7 per cent. These are to be converted into specific duties by a supplementary convention, the basis of calculation being the range of prices in the Japanese customs during the six months previous to the signing of the treaty. In levying the duties the value of the goods is to be increased by the cost of freight, insurance, and commissions. All the articles not enumerated are to come under the statutory tariff, and the rates are to be determined by the Parliament. It is likely, however, that the present 5 per cent. rate will remain in force for many years to come in this division of the tariff.

The revised treaty permits the new tariff to go into effect one month after the signing of the treaty. But as the favored-nation clause is invoked, the treaties with other nations must be revised before the old 5 per cent. rate can be abolished. At the end of seventeen years, Japan is to recover complete autonomy with respect to her tariff, and, should she secure equally good terms in her treaties with other countries, Japan will at the end of this period stand on a footing of absolute equality with other nations.

It is hardly necessary to add that in other respects Japan makes all the ordinary guarantees of mutual good faith to England. Inviolability of private residence is specifically affirmed. "Leases in perpetuity, under which property is now held in the Settlements, shall be confirmed." She guarantees complete liberty of conscience, the right of public or private exercise of worship, the right of burial according to any religious customs, equality of taxation, exemption from military service, and other guarantees not necessary to mention. In matters of trade, freedom is complete with two exceptions. The first of these is the coasting trade. Japan reserves this trade to her own vessels, and makes it subject to the law of the land. The other exception refers to the ownership of land. According to the treaty, no Englishman can purchase land in Japan, though he may hold land on lease subject to the same conditions as Japanese citizens. The civil code, which has not yet been put into operation, will determine the length of time for which leases may be granted. It will probably be at least thirty years for ordinary land, and therefore the limitation as to the ownership of this form of property will not be a serious drawback to any one.

It may be selfishly asked what immediate advantage Englishmen will derive from the new treaty, or whether they were not in a better position under the old treaty. In one sense Japan had but little to give in exchange for her demands, but what little there was she has given freely. The most important benefit she has conferred is the abolition of the present passport system. Hitherto the Japanese Government has granted passports outside of treaty limits only to certain districts or prefectures at a time. Travellers who applied through their respective legations were given passports for the space of six months to such districts as they might wish to see; and whenever they wished to visit places not included in the passport, fresh application had to be made. Foreigners in Japanese employ, however, found it very difficult to obtain passports except for very short periods or during their vacations. The necessity for applying for passports was in many cases a bar to making an excursion outside of treaty limits. Under the new treaty all these conditions have been swept aside, and passports will be granted to all applicants, whether travellers or foreign employees, for the space of one year, without any limitation as to territory. Furthermore, after five years, if the treaties are carried into effect, the whole passport system will be abolished, and the citizens of all nations who make new treaties with Japan will have full liberty to travel and live in any part of the country. The Japanese Government has generously extended the provisions of the English treaty so far as they relate to passports to the citizens of other countries, from the 20th of the present month, and henceforth all foreigners will be liberated from the petty restrictions of the old passport system.

Hardly less interesting than the provisions of the revised treaty is the manner in which it has been received by the English residents of the East. From what is generally known of the character of society in the open ports, it is not surprising to learn that the new treaty has been greeted with a storm of opposition and abuse. "Sold to the Orientals by the home Government" expresses the general opinion of Englishmen, and the newspapers with but few exceptions echo these sentiments with monotonous uniformity. Nevertheless it may be well to consider one or two of the formulated objections to the new treaty. The strongest of these relates to the organization of justice in Japan. Japan, say these critics, has emerged too lately from the old feudal state to understand the impartial administration of law in the western sense of the term. She needs a long period of probation before she can be sure that her judges are not influenced by personal prepossessions or anti-foreign prejudices. Particularly in critical cases which are likely to arise when popular feeling runs high, foreigners will find it impossible to secure such justice as they have been accustomed to in their own country. The answer to this is, that Japan has been organizing her law courts for over twenty years on European models. Not only has she sent men to Europe and America to study law, but she has had foreigners of ability to teach law in her universities. Japan has an elaborate system of courts of justice, to which foreigners already appeal whenever they bring

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an action against Japanese. Thus far there has been no sign of unfairness shown by her judges to foreigners. It is true that judges have not the same honor and dignity in Japan that they have in England, but then we must remember the extraordinary respect accorded to the bench in England. Mr. Bryce notices this peculiarity in his 'American Commonwealth': "The British judge is as abnormal as the British Constitution. . . . In most parts of the Continent the judge, even of the superior courts, does not hold a very high social position. In no part of Europe do his wishes and opinions carry the same weight or does he command the same deference as in England." Bearing this in mind, the English residents in the open ports cannot complain if the Japanese have followed the Continental rather than the English rule in the organization of the bench.

It is only when a Japanese brings an action against a foreigner that the case is tried before a foreign judge in the consular court. Why a Japanese judge should be less inclined to render impartial justice in this case than when a Japanese is the defendant, I have never been able to discover. But if, either through judicial incompetency or prejudice, a foreigner finds it impossible to secure justice, diplomatic negotiations might bring Japan to terms. Certainly one flagrant case of this kind would injure the reputation of Japan to such an extent that she would lose a thousand times more than she could possibly gain. No country in the world is probably more sensitive to her reputation for honor, or more anxious to secure the good opinion of western nations in this respect, than Japan. These very critics, when confronted with the question whether they would more willingly submit, say, to Russian administration of justice, have no better answer than that they are not living in Russia. Lastly, it may be remarked that the office of the impartial judge was by no means wholly unknown in old Japan. Though loyalty was the highest of all the virtues, justice had no unworthy place in her category of honor.

Some of the other objections to the administration of law hardly deserve mention. One of the most persistent relates to the rights of women. Says the Japan *Gazette* (of Yokohama): "Women are mere chattels. . . . They may be divorced for ill-temper, talkativeness, and other cardinal crimes." Perhaps no sentence could be penned that would give a more erroneous impression of the status or rights of women in Japan than this. In the first place, no woman in Japan can be divorced against her will without having recourse to the law. Some of the newspapers of Yokohama write as though the only bond uniting an English husband and wife was the force of English law. They seem to fear a general application for divorce if only the marriage laws be relaxed. It is true that until recently there was little law in Japan regulating either marriage or divorce. The whole institution was under the influence of certain customs which we know may be even more binding than law itself. But, except in the poorest classes, divorce is probably as rare in Japan as in the United States. The most tragic act in the celebrated play of the "Forty-seven Ronins" is the well-known divorce scene where the leader of the band gives a letter of divorce to his wife in order to disarm the suspicion of those who are sent to watch him. I have seen a whole theatre in tears when the final separation takes place. It is this kind of brutal, ignorant criticism of their institutions, of which the quotation from the *Gazette* is an example, that stirs up the Japanese to a sense of the essential unfairness of foreign opinion.

Of all the criticisms of the revised treaties with England, there is but one to which, so far as I am aware, any weight can be attached, and this has reference to the treatment of criminals and prisoners. As soon as Japan acquires full jurisdiction in the foreign settlements, a foreigner charged with the commission of a crime or misdemeanor will no longer be lodged in the consular jail, but in a Japanese prison. It is well known that Japan has been for a long time engaged in perfecting her prison system, and even the harshest critics acknowledge the excellence of it. But the mode of life to which the Japanese are accustomed—their food, clothing, and sleeping arrangements—is so essentially different from our own that it is well-nigh impossible for us to adapt ourselves completely to it. It is no answer to say that Japanese criminals are not in Europe or America treated according to their own customs. The Japanese quickly acquire our habits in these respects, and in fact prefer them to their own. It would have been only fair had England, in revising the treaty, stipulated for some conditions as to special treatment of her subjects in Japanese prisons. Doubtless the omission was an oversight, and can be easily remedied, for Japan has certainly proved to be one of the foremost countries of the world in applying the most humane standards of the West to all sorts and conditions of men. G. D.

Correspondence.

THE UNSTABLE VOTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There seems to be a disposition, on the part of the Independent press, to rejoice at the spirit displayed in the recent election; but independence of party ties appears to me of slight value to the cause of good government if such independence be unreasoning. Independence is helpful only when it springs from a growing intelligence and a capacity to discriminate.

That a party representing a certain policy—a party the larger number of whose best men are conscientious believers in and strongly committed to that policy—should be decisively routed because a handful of Senators proved recreant to their trust, would seem to show a strange lack of discrimination on the part of the people who only two years previously were clamoring for that the very name of which, we are asked to believe, now fills them with a senseless dread. An intelligent foreign observer of our affairs might well be amazed at the vacillating tendency of our people, so prone to changes and so fearful of the consequences of their own deliberate actions; and he might well wonder how our best men could ever be forced to accept nominations dependent on the suffrages of a people so unstable in their beliefs.

I have no desire to pose as the apologist for the dominant party in the present Congress. I realize that its faults were many and serious, its errors grave and damaging; but considering and appreciating all the errors of that Congress, a fair-minded, intelligent, and independent observer may well admit that its record for good far surpassed that of its Republican predecessor. Yet the Democratic was far worse than the Republican defeat!

Does this show an intelligent discrimination in which we as Independents may feel a just pride? May we glory in an independence which defeated Mr. Wilson because he dined with the Board of Trade in London, and elected—Quigg? Even the mangled Hill, prostrate "outside the breastworks," finds that he is in such good company that he may well be excused for attributing his downfall to a decree of inscrutable fate rather than to the seasoned convictions of a discriminating public.

Let us not exult too rashly, nor claim too much from a spirit which in its blind rage spares neither the innocent nor the guilty. There is an element of danger in political upheavals which are unreasoning. Let us not forget that until the average voter has reached an intelligent comprehension of such questions as are brought before him, a conclusion based upon his vote on these questions must be a delusion and a snare. C. A. W.

Baltimore, November 24, 1894.

A SUCCESSFUL ARCTIC EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since the return of Lieut. Peary from his successful Greenland expedition, several projects for explorations in the far north have been suggested, some of which have reached the dignity of serious undertakings, well planned and thoroughly equipped, which have been watched with unusual interest, and have commanded unusual attention from the press.

All of these enterprises have been entered into with confidence by their projectors, but most of them have returned with tales of disaster, or at least insuperable difficulties. Only one, so far as the writer knows, has come back triumphant, and that one is unknown to the general public. It went forth with no advertisements from the press, with an equipment that did not impose the necessity of paying baggage-excess charges, with funds that would by many be considered meagre for an individual's summer's outing, and it consisted of a single, unassuming young man, with his personal baggage. This expedition has been in the field for two years and a half, has penetrated the wilderness lying between the Saskatchewan River and the Arctic Sea, has accomplished all and more than it had in view at the start, and has returned, after almost circumnavigating Alaska, to its starting-point, the State University of Iowa, under whose auspices Mr. Frank Russell has carried through a really and completely successful arctic exploration.

After his graduation in 1892, Mr. Russell volunteered to undertake, for the benefit of his alma mater, zoölogical explorations involving extraordinary hardship, and even peril, with funds necessarily so meagre as to seem ridiculous. His mission was to collect a series of the animals of the far north and study their habits, to live among the most remote and degraded tribes of Indians and Esquimaux, to report on their daily life, folk-lore, and superstitions, collecting as much ethnological material as could be secured, and to do all this *alone*, except at the posts of the Hudson's Bay Company, which powerful organization agreed to encourage and assist Mr. Russell by every means in its power—an agreement most faithfully adhered to throughout.

The winter of 1892-3 was passed on the northwest shore of Lake Winnipeg, where the young explorer went into training for the dangerous work of the next year. Here he mastered the art of driving dog-teams and all that pertains to their care and management, prac-

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tised daily the accomplishment of running on snow-shoes, and became inured to camp life in severely cold weather. Here also he was initiated into the wood-craft and "snow-craft" of the Indians, moose-hunting, trapping, trailing and snaring, until he was able to run all day with the best of them and make himself comfortable while camping out alone at night. That scientific work was not neglected is attested by voluminous notes and extensive ethnological and zoölogical collections.

In February, 1893, Mr. Russell demonstrated the effectiveness of his winter's training by running behind his loaded sled the whole length of Lake Winnipeg, nearly three hundred miles, in ten days, experiencing some of the severest cold met with during his entire trip, but reaching Winnipeg without mishap.

The following spring and early summer were passed in making collections at Fort McLeod, near the foothills of the Rocky Mountains, and on Lake Athabasca, where he camped out alone for a month. Still going northward, he reached and crossed the Great Slave Lake, arriving at Fort Rae, a frontier Hudson's Bay post on the northern arm of the lake, early in July. This was his base of operations for ten months, during which time he travelled nearly twenty-two hundred miles on snow shoes, besides other hundreds in his canoe, exploring the region around the lake for several hundred miles in almost every direction. He went up the Yellow-Knife River on what might be called a zoological reconnaissance, and travelled five hundred miles to the north and east after the Barren Ground caribou, of which he secured an abundant series. In midwinter he made a long circuit in another fruitless hunt after wood buffalo, going far to the south and west of the lake. His life was an unending round of hardship and exposure such as few men could endure. Once he lived for a week on short rations, and then was storm-bound for four days more with nothing to eat. Most of the time he hunted in company with the Dog Rib Indians (a tribe noted as most degraded and untrustworthy), living their life and doing his own work throughout.

The main object of the whole expedition was to secure, if possible, a series of that most inaccessible of American mammals, the musk-ox. These were reported to be on the Barren Ground some four hundred miles northeast of Fort Rae and two hundred miles from timber. The difficulties and dangers of such a trip are enough to appal the bravest, but the one that appeared the most serious was the unexpected opposition of the Indians, who would not allow Russell to accompany them to the Barren Ground, because they were firmly convinced that if an *entire* musk-ox skin were taken to the far south country, *all the other musk-ox would follow*, and the Barren Ground would be barren indeed. No present good could tempt the Dog Ribs to mortgage their future, and they departed without the sorely disheartened young naturalist.

Russell did not give up, however, but adopted a novel, although dangerous, expedient. As is usually the case, the Indians used up their somewhat scanty supply of ammunition in killing caribou before leaving the timber, and sent a messenger back for more. When this worthy arrived at the fort, Mr. Russell pounced upon him and announced that they would return together to the Barren Ground, *nolens volens* so far as the Indian was concerned, who was, however, to be paid for his involuntary service. This rather summary business arrangement was consummated; the plucky explorer driving his own dogs and doing his own work, the Indian assisting in the one item of disposing of the food.

They joined the other Dog Ribs at the edge of the timber, two hundred miles from the Fort, and started for the "Musk-ox Hills," two hundred miles out on the desolate and treeless Barren Ground, not far from Bathurst Inlet. Reaching the "Hills," which proved to be mountains several thousand feet high, the party divided into two bands, and succeeded in killing about one hundred musk-ox, which were found in small herds, rounded up by the dogs, and ruthlessly slaughtered, Mr. Russell killing four that broke away at full speed, besides several others. He skinned five of the largest, and with great difficulty packed the skins, skulls, and horns on his own sled. After twenty-two days spent on the Barren Ground with no fuel but that which they carried from the timber, the party again entered the woods. Fort Rae was reached after an absence of two months, Mr. Russell having travelled about eight hundred miles on snow-shoes, being compelled to push on the sled during a great portion of the time to assist his exhausted dogs in transporting the heaviest load ever taken from the Barren Grounds. Few, if any, pluckier undertakings have been carried to a successful issue by explorers in the arctic regions.

Last spring the journey northward was resumed, the traveller proceeding by dog-sledge to the Mackenzie River. A considerable portion of the trip down that river was made alone in his canoe. At Peel River Mr. Russell joined the French explorer Count de Sainville, in whose company the rest of the journey was made, our young friend still paddling his own canoe to the mouth of the Mackenzie, one hundred and sixty miles distant, and then one hundred miles through the ice-floes of the Arctic Sea to Herschel Island, a feat probably never before attempted in a one-man canoe.

Two months were spent at Herschel Island and the adjacent mainland in securing zoölogical, botanical, and ethnological collections characteristic of the arctic coast, and then passage was secured on the American steam whaler *Jeannette*, Capt. Newth. The remainder of the whaling season was passed on board, the *Jeannette* going north of Wrangel Land, and then touching at two points on the Siberian coast, where Mr. Russell secured important additions to his collection, notably a gigantic polar bear killed the preceding winter by the natives, and a large and unusually valuable collection of ivory carvings and other ethnological material. The *Jeannette* then turned homeward, and, after a very rough voyage, entered the Golden Gate October 27. Mr. Russell reached Iowa City about a week later, and was received by his alma mater in a manner worthy of his unique achievement and splendid services in the cause of science.

C. C. Nutting.

FOREVER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 1st I met with the following phrase, which has given me much concern: "Vanessa's death will for ever lie at his door."

I am not concerned about Swift and his flirtations, but for a much more serious matter. I write a great deal; my contributions are occasionally accepted by newspapers. In matters of style and the nice use of language I always look to the *Nation* for guidance. Have I been wrong in writing "forever" as one word? I am aware that the crasis is a comparatively recent innovation, but I thought it was well established. The learned Calverley asserts as much in a poem full of feeling, which I will venture to copy:

Forever! 'Tis a single word!
Our rude forefathers deemed it two:
Can you imagine so absurd
A view?

Forever! What abysms of woe
The word reveals! What frenzy, what
Despair! "For ever" (printed so)
Did not.

It looks—ah me!—how trite and tame!
It fails to sadden, or appal,
Or solace—it is not the same
At all.

O thou to whom it first occurred
To solder the disjoined, and dower
Thy native language with a word
Of power,

We bless thee! Whether far or near
Thy dwelling, whether dark or fair
Thy kingly brow, is neither here
Nor there.

But in men's hearts shall be thy throne
While the great pulse of England beats,
Thou coiner of a word unknown
To Keats.

And nevermore must printer do
As men did long ago; but run
"For" into "ever," bidding two
Be one.

Forever! passion-fraught, it throws
O'er the dim page a gloom, a glamour:
It's sweet, it's strange; and I suppose
It's grammar.

Your very obedient servant,

Papyrius Cursor.

AMERICAN ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There seems to be at present a revival of interest in the subject of American English, and it may, therefore, not be inappropriate if I call the attention of your readers to a circular I have issued in reference to the subject. The object of the circular is to get as many answers as possible to a set of questions designed to bring out such facts as will enable me to outline—however vaguely—a dialect map of this country.

It is evident that scientific detail work cannot progress to advantage until we have more definite ideas than we now possess as to the geographical distribution of speech usage. The first work in this direction must be done, for the most part, through the mails, and therefore the questions are directed towards points of divergence in vocabulary rather than in pronunciation. The more delicate test of phonology must, in large measure, be reserved for personal investigation.

The circular was reprinted in the *Dial* for May 5, in *Modern Language Notes* for May, and, in its most recent form, in *Dialect Notes*, Part viii. Copies will be sent—in such numbers as may be desired—to any one forwarding his address to me. Between five hundred and six hundred sets of answers have been received, but I prefer not to begin classification until there are at least a thousand. Replies come in but scantily from the South and from Canada, and I am therefore most anxious for more from those sections; but all replies are very welcome.

George Hempl.

95 E. University Ave.,
Ann Arbor, Mich., November 21, 1894.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in preparation a 'History of the Fifth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. Wm. H. Powell, U. S. A., and will begin publication on receipt of a sufficient number of orders.

Duprat & Co., No. 349 Fifth Avenue, solicit

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orders for a work on 'The Library of Robert Hoe, Esq.,' by O. A. Bierstadt. The description of the features of this valuable collection, numbering some 15,000 volumes, including illuminated MSS., will be accompanied with 100 illustrations, nearly half of which will be artotypes.

Prof. H. Carrington Bolton of New York and Reginald Bolton of London invite subscriptions to a new and much amplified edition, with illustrations, of 'The Family of Bolton in England and America, 1100-1894.' It will form an octavo volume of some 600 pages. Prof. Bolton's address is University Club.

Macmillan & Co. will undertake a complete American edition of Björnson's works. For Mrs. Steel's 'Tales of the Punjab' they have secured the clever pencil of the senior Kipling.

Silver, Burdett & Co. issue immediately 'American Writers of To-day,' by Henry C. Vedder.

Two illustrated missionary works are announced by Fleming H. Revell Co., viz.: 'Joseph Hardy Neesima,' founder of the first Christian institution of learning in Japan (Doshisha University), by the Rev. J. D. Davis, one of the professors there; and 'The Neglected Continent,' an account of the mission tour of the Rev. G. C. Grubb through South America, by Lucy E. Guinness and E. C. Millard.

A financial novel, '6,000 Tons of Gold,' by H. R. Chamberlain, will be reprinted in this country by Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa.

The exercises held at Knox College, Galesburg, Ill., on November 3 in honor of the 100th anniversary of the birth of William Cullen Bryant, will be reported in a volume sold only by subscription in a limited edition. Each copy will be numbered and signed by the poet's brother, John Howard Bryant. The publisher is Earnest Elmo Calkins, at Galesburg.

A New York firm having announced an edition of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table,' legal proceedings in restraint have been entered upon by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Prof. Archibald MacMechan of Dalhousie College, Halifax, has edited 'Sartor Resartus' for Ginn & Co., Boston, with copious citations in the notes from Carlyle himself by way of commentary.

A. Constable & Co., London, have in press 'The Travels of the Tsesarevitch in the East,' with 500 wood-engravings and photogravures from the sketches made by the artist who accompanied the suite. Vol. i. will appear in January. They will also publish 'Songs of the Soil,' by Frank Stanton.

There is a protest in the very name of "The Duodecimos" (a new book-club), which will waken an echo in the breasts of thousands who love a handy book. The membership, to correspond to the size of the projected publications, is also of twelve, widely scattered; and the limit of the edition a gross. The president is Francis Wilson, the treasurer Francis M. Larned, and the secretary W. Irving Way, Monadnock Building, Chicago. The club's first book is a facsimile of the first issue of 'Poor Richard's Almanac,' from a unique copy, and they have printed it at the De Vinne Press on genuine eighteenth-century paper (spoils of old ledgers), on a hand-press made in Philadelphia probably before 1800. The fore part of the work is antithetically up to date, with expressly new type and fresh hand-made paper. Mr. John Bigelow furnishes an agreeable historico-bibliographical introduction. More still: fourteen Franklin portraits, genuine and apocryphal, carefully distinguished, are interspersed with the letter-press. Better taste and judgment we have never known in the first venture of such clubs. The public is admitted to compete for the 132 paper copies at $10 each. The Duodecimos themselves are content with vellum.

With the aid of a well-known amateur photographer, Dr. Charles L. Mitchell of Philadelphia, Porter & Coates have brought out a very attractive edition of Miss Zimmern's translation of De Amicis's 'Holland' in two volumes, prettily bound in blue with the stamp of the Dutch tulip. The views number forty-four, and are, if not always pertinent to the page they face (though this often enough happens), always locally in the right place. The total effect is very pleasing, and a good map crowns all; but the work deserved still greater pains in the supplying of an index.

Of pocket Shaksperes there is no end. The latest to reach us is the Lansdowne Edition of Frederick Warne & Co., in six volumes, in a box. There is a brief memoir of the poet and a brief glossary; the rest is text pure and simple, which the editor of the Chandos Classics has constructed. The thin paper is not too thin, and the print is good.

The aim of Mr. Clifton Johnson, in his attractive book 'The Farmer's Boy' (D. Appleton & Co.), has been to describe by word and picture the various occupations of a boy in his early teens on a New England farm. Beginning with winter, he shows him at work doing the chores, weeding the garden, raking hay, picking apples, skating, fishing, swimming, and nutting. There are many homely and natural touches, evidently drawn from the author's own experiences, and revealing an intimate knowledge of and sympathy with boys. The many hardships of life on a farm, its constant and wearisome toil, are not concealed nor regretted. The pictures, which are reproductions of photographs of actual scenes, are chosen with great taste, and some are very beautiful, as "Some Fun in a Boat" (p. 44), and the haying scene (p. 71). There are twelve full-page illustrations and fifty-two in the text. Though it is not a story, few boys or their elders can fail to enjoy this charming book.

It is not apparent why a New York publisher (Francis P. Harper) should care to republish Jesse's 'Memoirs of King Richard the Third, with an Historical Drama on the Battle of Bosworth,' in two volumes. One can only suppose that there is some demand among people of means for well-printed editions of gossipy books professing to be histories. Jesse's book was written three and thirty years ago, and was unscholarly even for that time; and most people who know anything about the period will turn rather to Mr. Gairdner's works. But most people know nothing, and only want to be kept awake after dinner; and these "Memoirs" may be recommended as not too severe for their purpose.

The University Press at Cambridge, Mass., has issued Messrs. Rand and Redfield's 'Flora of Mount Desert Island, Maine.' The catalogue of plants observed is very carefully made out, and definite localities are given for all but the commonest species. A good map of Mt. Desert and the little islands about it accompanies the work, and, besides a preface and a statement of the authors' plan, there is an introduction in which the flora of the region is generally considered, and the Rochester code of nomenclature discussed, and good reasons given for condemning it. Accordingly, the names of flowering plants are those found in Gray's 'Manual,' and the names of mosses mainly those given by Lesquereux and James. An outline of the local geology, by William Morris Davis, occupying some twenty-nine pages, is of especial interest. When the authors began to study the Mt. Desert flora, they found very few foreign plants; but now, it seems, the usual weeds of civilization are establishing themselves on the island, and purslane and peppergrass, wild carrot, tansy, and oxeye daisy have come to stay. The genus of milkweeds is unknown, and so are the gentians; trailing arbutus and *Arethusa* still linger in a few places; but the foreigners will surely expel them in time, just as the French and the Anglo-Americans have replaced, or nearly replaced, the Pasamaquoddy and the Penobscot Indians.

The third volume of Hooker and Jackson's 'Index Kewensis' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) begins with K, and stops in the middle of the genus *Psidium*, the last species indexed being *Psidium galapagœum*, leaving the delicious Guava (*Psidium Guajava*) to come near the top of the first page of the last volume. The genera most numerous in admitted species are *Panicum*, with 746 species, and *Piper*, with 725. Next to these come *Mamillaria*, with 413, and *Loranthus*, with 402. These figures considerably exceed the estimates of Bentham and Hooker in the 'Genera Plantarum,' where of *Panicum* it was stated that "the species preserved in our herbaria are probably between 250 and 280, but thrice as many are enumerated by various authors." Of *Piper* the same authorities said the species were "beyond 600." But it should be noticed that the plan of the present work is to include a great many references to names of plants which, if carefully studied, would in many cases be reduced to other acknowledged species. A noteworthy practice in this index is that the authors have refrained from multiplying synonyms by giving new specific names in cases where different botanists have employed the same name for distinct plants. Thus *Panicum aquaticum* of Poir, from Porto Rico, and *Panicum aquaticum* of A. Richard, from Abyssinia, are both listed in Roman letters; and similarly there are two admissions of *Panicum clandestinum*, *P. conglomeratum*, *P. discolor*, *P. emergens*, *P. leiophyllum*, and so in many other instances. This is as it should be in an index; though it would have been very easy for Messrs. Hooker and Jackson to pose as authors of new names by hundreds if not by thousands, if they had been willing to propose a new specific name for the second one of each of these pairs. Would that this moderation were generally imitated.

The very varied contents of the *Annales de Géographie* for October include a paper on the relations of geography to meteorology, by Prof. Duclaux, an account of the irrigation of the arid lands of the United States, and an interesting statement in regard to the two projected railways through the Pyrenees. The western of these is to go from Oloron in France by way of the Col du Somport to Jaca in Spain. This will require a tunnel a little over five miles in length at a height of 3,300 feet. Nothing appears to have been done as yet, except that the Spaniards are building several forts at the foot of the pass. The eastern route is a prolongation of the line from Toulouse by the Port de Salau to Lerida. All that remains to be done on the French side is to construct a road about twenty-five miles long, of which two and a half will be tunnelled. A loan of six million francs has just been authorized for the building of the first section of ten miles. The railroad on the Spanish side is still 100 miles distant from the frontier, and it is doubt-

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ful if it will be completed at the appointed time. The Spanish Government has just proposed to the French that the tunnel should be constructed by one of the countries, the other to bear half the expense, but the French strenuously insist that each shall build its own part. These roads will open to the markets of the world the now undeveloped, but rich, mines of iron, manganese, lead, and copper, and the extensive marble quarries of the Pyrenees and the fertile valleys of northern Spain. With this number is issued a magnificent map, 28x36 inches, of Indo-China, including Siam and part of Burmah, giving the results of the mission headed by M. Pavie. There is also a supplemental number containing a very useful list of the principal geographical publications, books, pamphlets, transactions of societies, etc., during the year 1893. It is classified according to subjects and countries, and nearly every entry is accompanied by a critical note.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for October opens with a detailed description, accompanied by maps and a plan, of last April's earthquake in Locris, Greece, by Prof. Mitzopulos of Athens. This is followed by an account, with a map, of two expeditions in northern Somaliland, undertaken by J. Menges for the collection of wild animals for zoölogical gardens. The business is becoming more difficult, as the larger game is gradually disappearing from the regions adjacent to the coast, on account of the English sportsmen who come here from Aden to hunt. Farther inland there are to be found wild asses of remarkable size, "scarcely inferior to the horses of the Galla and Somali." The natives, however, do not attempt to capture and tame them. Remains of ancient cisterns show that this desert was formerly cultivated—according to native tradition, by the Persians.

"Two Months in Korea" is the title of a very timely and entertaining article by Capt. Cavendish in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for November. He gives a lively picture of Seul and the peculiar customs of its inhabitants. Among these is the arrest and flogging by the police-patrol of every man found in the streets at night, this being the time "set apart for the women to take exercise in." With the exception of the road to the capital, there are only bridle or foot-paths in the country, which generally follow a watercourse, and hence at the time of the rains are impassable. This difficulty of transport, together with the laziness of the men and the corruption which reigns in every department of the Government, forms the great obstacle to the development of the undoubted riches of the country. Accompanying the article is an admirably clear map of Korea and the adjacent parts of China and Mantchuria, colored to show elevation, and giving the principal roads.

The article of greatest popular interest in the *Geographical Journal* for November is Mr. W. H. Cozens-Hardy's account of a journey in Montenegro. He had the good fortune to be present at the celebration of the four-hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the earliest Slavic printing-press in the country. The festivities, which lasted a week, consisted chiefly of dancing and singing by the bards. One, a blind man, sat on the palace steps and sang of the recent wars with the Turks. The people are described as honest, temperate, with a respect for women and an esteem for education, which is universal and compulsory; but their progress and the development of the ample resources of their country will be impossible so long as they do not shake off their old idea that every occupation except fighting is beneath the dignity of a man. An improvement in their relations to their Turkish neighbors was shown a few months ago in a solemn reconciliation between the Montenegrins and the Albanians. A battalion of Turkish soldiers and two battalions of Montenegrins were drawn up facing each other on the banks of a stream near the frontier. After a religious service, conducted first by the Montenegrin popes and then by the Mussulman hadji, a stone held by the leaders was thrown into the water, with the words, "As this stone is washed away and disappears, so let the blood-feuds between us be washed away and disappear." This same friendly feeling prevailed in the neighboring sandjak of Novi Bazar, which presents the anomaly of being jointly occupied by Turkey and Austria. The latter country declined to undertake the administration of the sandjak when it was ceded to her by the Berlin treaty, but reserved the right to garrison it. Consequently there is "a Turkish civil and military administration of all, and an Austrian military occupation of part" of the sandjak. Mr. Cozens-Hardy's attempt to travel in Albania was unsuccessful, on account of the disturbed condition of the country. His principal object, as holding the geographical studentship of the Royal Geographical Society and the University of Oxford, was to determine the eastern boundaries of the principality and of Novi Bazar. In this he succeeded, and in the map which accompanies his paper both the old and the present boundaries are shown.

The same number contains a valuable but rather technical account, by Mr. J. B. Tyrrell, of his remarkable journey through the Barren Lands of Canada to Hudson Bay. A large part of the total distance travelled, 3,200 miles, was through absolutely unknown country. On one of the numerous lakes discovered was a sloping bog, the surface of which was bright-green turf composed of lichen, low bushes of cranberry, Labrador tea, etc., with a subsoil of bright-yellow moss, which at the depth of about a foot was frozen into a solid mass of ice. The whole bog was moving slowly down the gentle slope, like a true glacier, ending at the lake in a cliff some twelve feet in height, from which large masses of peat were constantly falling on the sandy beach. An excellent map shows the results of the surveys of Mr. Tyrrell's party.

M. Lionel Dècle begins an entertaining though very sketchy account of his recent journey in Africa from the Cape to Uganda in the November number of the *Pall Mall Magazine*. This first instalment is chiefly taken up with a very graphic picture of the discomforts of wagon travelling in Matabeleland. M. Dècle formed a very unfavorable impression of Khama, the chief of the Bamangwato, asserting that, in his eagerness to make his people temperate and religious, he neglected to enforce the simplest sanitary regulations among them. "The result was that out of a population of 15,000, the death-rate amounted to forty a day."

The proverbial long-felt need of a special organ for German universities is to be met by the *Academische Revue*, "internationales Organ für Universitäten," under the direction of Dr. von Salvisberg, a stately quarto in Roman type (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). The prospectus dwells with much earnestness on the fact that even the United States of America is still in many ways so sorely misunderstood by Europeans—a fact emphasized by the following misprints: New Hawen, Harward, *John* Hopkins, New Yersey. In the editorial introduction we make a new acquaintance in Erneste Renan. The reciprocity of communication between universities of the Old and the New World aimed at by the *Revue* seems, therefore, most desirable. K. Roeth reviews at length in the first number Prof. Lot's 'Enseignement Supérieur en France,' from which he quotes, with pardonable pride, the statement that "the scientific leadership of Germany, in all branches of science, without exception, is now recognized by all civilized peoples," thanks to the superior organization of German universities and the excellent work done by their feeders, the Gymnasia. French students study, and their teachers teach, only such subjects as are required for the "licencié" examinations. Study for its own sake, without utilitarian ends, there is none; and this seems to Lot to be the mildew which blights French scientific activity.

The Necrology of Andover Theological Seminary is so admirably prepared by its devoted editor, the Rev. C. C. Carpenter, as to be interesting reading even for those who had no personal acquaintance with the clergy whose lives are therein epitomized. The dead for the year ending in June, 1894, number forty, and their average age was about seventy-two years. This average is greatly reduced by the deaths of a few at the beginning of their careers, as appears from the fact that fourteen of the forty lived to be over eighty, and thirty-one were above seventy years old. While there are no names of great distinction upon the list, the brief record of their lives impressively suggests the vastness of the labor that has been performed by the Church in supplying our growing country with Christian institutions.

We learn from *Nature* that a medical school for women is to be established by the Russian Government at St. Petersburg. Only a few years ago the Minister of Instruction was strongly opposed to every movement favorable to the higher education of women. This step, which is said to be due to the influence of Prince Volkonski, marks the beginning of a distinct change in Russian sentiment towards women.

The governing body of the Medical School of the University of Bucharest has just decided that Madame Sacara Tulbure, whose brilliant work as a student secured her being granted a travelling fellowship by the Rumanian Government, shall not be allowed to compete for the vacant professorship of children's diseases. The fertility of invention exhibited in the reason assigned for this restriction may perhaps be accounted for by the fact that a son of a member of the governing board is a competitor for the same position. The argument is this (and it deserves to be imitated by excluding bodies in other countries): The university is represented in the Rumanian Senate by a member elected by its professors; but since women in general cannot vote, no woman professor could fulfil this duty of her office, and hence no woman can be a professor. It seems that this decision may induce Dr. Sacara to take up the practice of medicine in this country.

Prof. Wilder contributes to the Ithaca *Journal* of November 14 a timely "practical protest" against raising $10,000 to send the Cornell crew to England. He enumerates several departments of the university which are embarrassed for want of funds, and continues: "Let me add my conviction that, as mere advertisements, and as attractions to the kind of students for which this university was founded and has been maintained, not all possible athletic victories can compare with publications of our alumni such as Gage's 'The Microscope' and Comstock's 'Entomology.'"

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—Regarding the review of Spinoza's 'Ethic,' in No. 1532 of the *Nation*, a correspondent writes:

"Your reviewer ought to have been aware of an American translation. Had he been, he would not have mentioned only those made abroad, as if none had been made at home. He blames his translators for their title *Ethic* as 'an ignorant corruption of *Ethica* from a neuter plural to a feminine singular.' The American translator did not make that mistake, and his work seems for many reasons more worthy of reproduction than that reviewed. This translator was Henry Smith, who, in 1836, was a university student in Germany, who, in 1844, published a translation of Crusius's 'Homeric Lexicon,' and for twenty years, as professor and president at Marietta, did much for that study of Latin which the reviewer so extols. At Lane Seminary Dr. Smith for twenty years lectured on Spinoza, and had completed his translation of the 'Ethics' before he had ever seen any other in English. Though his style is terse, his prolegomena fill 179 pages, embracing a minute analysis of every point in the 'Ethics,' as well as the relations of that work to other philosophic systems, *e. g.*, those of Bacon, Descartes, Kant, Coleridge, and Hamilton. His work 'Spinoza and his Environment: A Critical Essay, with a translation of the Ethics,' was ready for the press in 1877. Its publication, delayed by *res angusta domi* and the author's death, was in 1886, by Robert Clarke & Co. The 'Ethics' was his pet theme, and so his students brought it out *in memoriam*."

Another correspondent, writing in praise of Elwes's translation of the 'Ethics,' calls our attention to the fact that he was well aware of Spinoza's acquaintance with Hobbes, and cites a passage to that effect.

—It is well known that the late Prof. Froude, having been censured for the theological views contained in the 'Nemesis of Faith,' and in other writings, published in 1847-8, had to resign his fellowship in Exeter College. The statement that the 'Nemesis of Faith' was publicly burned by the Oxford authorities, though sometimes made, is not true. The last time that books were burned by authority in Oxford appears to have been in the year 1683. As a matter of fact the 'Nemesis of Faith' was burned in the quadrangle of Exeter College by William Sewell, who was at the time a fellow of the College, and who afterwards became Warden of the short-lived Radley College. In after years Mr. Froude was made honorary fellow of Exeter College, and as Regius Professor of History he became a fellow of Oriel College. As a final and further act of reparation may be mentioned the impressive words spoken in the Oxford University pulpit by Prof. Sanday on the day after Mr. Froude's death. At the close of a most scrupulous appreciation of the historian's character, Dr. Sanday said: "We all know how the young and ardent churchman followed his reason where it seemed to lead, and sacrificed a fellowship, and, as it might have seemed, a career, to scruples of conscience. That, at least, was a Christian act, and He who weighs all deeds and motives will doubtless judge it differently from some who thought to be zealous in His service at the time. Now we can see that the difficulties which led to it were real difficulties. It was right, and not wrong, that they should be raised and faced."

—A contributor to the *Nation* sends us a copy of a note made by him on the 8th of December, 1873, after a visit to the Deanery, Westminster, the previous afternoon. The note gives an instance of the "bold and original views" of the late James Anthony Froude, who had himself been present at the Deanery on the 7th:

"There was an interesting conversation between the Dean [Stanley] and Mr. Froude about the Dean's having allowed Mr. Max Müller to lecture in the Abbey last week. The Dean said he had taken legal advice and been informed that no lecture could be given 'at a service.' He said he had introduced Bach's Passion music, on the principle that it was as allowable as an oratorio. Mr. Froude said he had often suggested to clergymen that they should give up one day in the week to laymen, to ask questions concerning the clergy's sermons, or to answer them. The Dean thought this a good idea."

—Of the bitter feeling which Mr. Freeman had for his brother historian, some explanation will doubtless be given by the biographers of those distinguished men. Mr. Froude himself was of opinion that Mr. Freeman's bitterness was intensified when the former voted for and supported the nomination of Dean Stanley to be one of the Select Preachers at Oxford, in 1872. It was in no measured terms that Freeman would denounce what he considered Froude's ignorance and inaccuracy. "*Froudacity*, in fact!" he has been heard to exclaim, as he ended his denunciation. Of this same word *Froudacity* there is a story which has not yet been seen in print. The word was coined by the writer of a review of Froude's 'English in the West Indies.' Afterwards, an educated African, living on the island of Trinidad in the West Indies, wrote a book upon Froude's book, with the title 'Froudacity.' When Freeman died, his 'History of Sicily' was going through the press. The publisher having to send proofs to the Freeman family, some of these proofs were wrapped up in sheets of 'Froudacity,' which had not been in such demand as to require binding. The Freeman family were somewhat nettled at this, but, on inquiry of the publisher, were assured that there had been no plot in the transaction. It was a mere coincidence.

—"College Histories of Art" is the general title of a series of text-books of which Prof. John C. Van Dyke is editor, and the first of which, 'A History of Painting' (Longmans), is from the hand of the editor himself. The purpose of the book requires so much condensation that the result is dry reading, but the writing must have been still more dry. Prof. Van Dyke has performed his uninviting task with great thoroughness and good success. One is naturally tempted to compare this work with Prof. Goodyear's 'Renaissance and Modern Art,' recently noticed in these columns. Prof. Goodyear's volume deals with sculpture and architecture as well as with painting, so that his field is larger while the space of time covered is shorter than with Prof. Van Dyke. Prof. Van Dyke's adoption of the division by schools makes the general thread of artistic development harder to follow, and does not give so clear a conception of the transference of art methods and art supremacy from one country to another as does Prof. Goodyear's chronological treatment, where all the countries of Europe are driven abreast. On the other hand, Prof. Van Dyke's book is the fuller of names (biographical facts he, wisely, does not deal in), and his judgments, particularly as regards modern artists, are more discriminating. He seems to us singularly happy in his characterization of various artists, and amazingly just in proportion. We have hardly found an instance in which the relative importance accorded a given artist seemed to us manifestly wrong, and hardly one in which the special characteristics of a style were not adequately presented. Of course such a book makes no claim to originality, but it should prove useful. The style is not always free from carelessness, but is sufficiently clear. Other volumes of the series announced as in preparation are a 'History of Architecture,' by Alfred D. F. Hamlin, A. M., and a 'History of Sculpture,' by Allan Marquand, Ph.D., L.H.D.

—We have received the second volume of M. Salomon Reinach's 'Description raisonnée' of the contents of the Museum of St.-Germain, the first volume of which, devoted to remains of the alluvial and cave-dwellers' epoch, we noticed at the time of its appearance. The present volume, an octavo of 384 pages, describes the *bronzes figurés* (that is, the statuettes and bas-reliefs) of Roman Gaul, and does not include arms and utensils decorated with purely vegetable or geometric patterns. An important feature of the book, and one which, thanks to the cheapness of modern reproductive processes, is becoming common in museum catalogues, is that every specimen is illustrated, there being 595 cuts in the text, and a Dujardin plate of the Évreux Jupiter, which serves as a frontispiece, although the Museum possesses only a reproduction of the figure. A study of the illustrations shows that the Gallic bronzes of the Roman period are interesting more from an ethnological than an artistic point of view, as they betray the influences of a dominating style of art upon people whose artistic instincts were certainly not in the direction of the human face or figure. Those statuettes of Greek or Roman subjects which are not evidently importations, are but rude imitations of the beautiful types found in Italy and the eastern Mediterranean countries; but they are interesting because of the light they throw upon the artistic condition of the Gauls at the time of the Roman dominion, and still more so because of their testimony as to the direction from which the influence of classical art came into Gaul.

—In an introduction, the only defect of which is its brevity, M. Reinach discusses this subject, and makes it clear that the principal school which affected Gaul was the Græco-Egyptian one of Alexandria, which came into Gaul not only through the intermediary of Rome, but directly by sea to the ports on the southern coast, and thence up the valley of the Rhone. Another interesting point which he brings out forcibly is the essential difference in artistic tendencies between the people north of the Alps and those of the Græco-Roman civilization. Even at the time of the Roman Empire, the northern races gave proof of the decidedly individual tendencies which were later to play such an important part in the development of Byzantine and Romanesque art. In contrast to the classical love of animal forms, M. Reinach summarizes as the characteristic principles of the arts of all northern Europe at that time a prevalence of geometric decoration, showing a taste for symmetry rather than living forms, a development of logic rather than imagination, a love of bright colors and open-work relief, and a strong inclination for *stilisation*, or the conventionalizing of natural forms into decorative motives.

—The fact that a cat, when it falls from any considerable height, lands always on its feet, is so well known as to be proverbial. What is perhaps less known is, that this seemingly simple performance has been, for a week's time, an inexplicable puzzle to the learned. A very lively debate sprang up over the question in the Académie des Sciences at its session of October 22, and it is possible that the savants might have

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decided in favor of what they fondly deemed to be the laws of mechanics and against the cat if M. Marey had not brought in documentary evidence, consisting of sixty instantaneous photographs that he had taken, representing every stage of the animal's descent. The first showed the cat with its feet up; then, as if making desperate gestures of appeal with its paws; then, turning progressively on itself; and, at last, landing on all fours. M. Marey was of opinion that a complete turn was made within the first metre of the descent. M. Guyon thought that the rotation was due to the displacement of the members during the fall, which overcame the inertia. M. Marcel Deprez was of the opinion that no body could turn itself thus without an assisting force. MM. Loewy, Maurice Lévy, Milne-Edwards, Bertrand, and Berthelot thought that the cat found a *point d'appui* in the hand that dropped it, or the object that provoked its fall, from which it gained a movement of rotation. But M. Marey replied that no indication of this was to be seen in the photographs. M. Marcel Deprez then suggested that the displacement of the intestines might play some part in the matter, though, whatever it might be, it would be contrary to all known laws. M. Marey promised that he would continue his researches, and would suspend his cat hereafter by a string, which he would cut at the proper moment, and then, as before, would photograph the successive phases of the animal's fall. At the next meeting, M. Maurice Lévy rose and said that, in his opinion, the whole difficulty in the case had sprung from an inexact interpretation of some fundamental principles of mechanics. He then passed to the blackboard, which he rapidly covered with figures that proved clearly to the severest understandings that the cat broke no mathematical laws by its fall. Peace settled down on the Academy: *Causa finita est.*

PICKARD'S WHITTIER.

Life and Letters of John Greenleaf Whittier. By Samuel T. Pickard. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

MR. PICKARD'S Life of his distinguished relative is a very creditable performance. It could not be written more modestly, so far as he is personally concerned; and his claim for Whittier, whether as poet, politician, or reformer, is nowhere in excess of what the fairest will allow. As a piece of literary work, without any charm of style, the book has the merit of simplicity, a Quaker plainness making it absolutely transparent for the facts and Whittier's personal image to shine through. If it never delights us by the felicity of its phrases, it never once offends us by inflated rhetoric or questionable taste. Losing his life in order to find it in this fashion was something which Whittier dreaded quite as much as Dr. Johnson; but he knew it had to be, and he conspired with Mr. Pickard for the event. The greatest merits of this biography are its fulness and its honesty. It is very rich in information, very strong in facts. Many will miss some knowledge that they crave, but many more will perceive, as they go on, that the omissions are provisional. So doing, they will find themselves wondering whether the arrangement of the matter is the best conceivable. Especially in the thirties it is annoying to have a thrice-told tale of the abolitionist reformer, the Whig politician, and the Liberty Party abolitionist. If the three had been fused, the result would have been more satisfactory. In other places the narrative often returns upon itself. It is in the treatment of Whittier as a Whig politician that the honesty of this biographer is most apparent. Less honest, he would have suppressed some things that can hardly fail to shock some of the many who have never thought of Whittier except as a poetic reformer and a saint. The book abstains from anything that can properly be called criticism of Whittier's literary art. This is a great deficiency, or it would be if no other biography were in prospect. Of course there will be others, and some one of them will make good what is lacking here.

Mr. Pickard enters into the labors of so many others that he has little new for us concerning Whittier's family and his ancestral tree. The name, it appears, is spelled eighteen different ways in the Essex County records. Mr. Pickard confirms the rumor of Whittier's remote cousinship with Daniel Webster, marked by their common heritage, "the Bachiler eye." He pleads certain facts in arrest of Whittier's judgment on their common ancestor, the Rev. Stephen Bachiler, the poet having followed Gov. Winthrop's blackening. The story of Whittier's boyhood is admirably told. He grew too fast, attaining his mature height, five feet ten and a half inches, when he was about fifteen; and too much toughening, he fancied, spoiled his health for life. His intellectual growth, on the contrary, was extremely slow. It is hard to find in what he wrote for Garrison in 1826, the promise and the potency which made Garrison so confident of his future. But the remarkable thing is that for five or six years after this he made little or no progress, though he wrote and published hundreds of poems, none of which received the certificate of his final approbation, though a few have been preserved as curiosities in an appendix to his collected works. His political activity may have been injurious to his poetical development, but the truth appears to be that it was "the winged Hippogriff Reform" that was his poetical salvation. Those who have fancied that his poetical genius suffered from his anti-slavery connection will find no warrant in these volumes for their belief. One is even compelled to wonder whether without that connection he would have attained any abiding fame. Abolitionism was the good angel that first troubled the depths of his nature. After the war it was the energy generated by his anti-slavery experience that he converted into "Snow-Bound" and many other beautiful things which, with his anti-slavery poems, made his place secure.

Before 1831 there was about as little in Whittier's course prophetic of a splendid moral earnestness as of real poetical ability. Politics, not poetry, was the main region of his ambition, and his political writing and thinking were not marked by any superiority to distinguish them from the common run. Even when he had fairly joined the abolitionists, he remained for six years a Whig politician, a valiant henchman of Caleb Cushing, who was thrice indebted to him for his election to Congress. Of course, we must avoid the fallacy of reflecting the ultimate Caleb Cushing of the pro-slavery Democracy back upon the earlier man; yet, whatever his alliances, his character and methods underwent no serious change. That his methods, those of the average log-roller and wire puller of 1830-'38, were worn by Whittier with so little difference, is the surprising part of Mr. Pickard's revelation. His fourth and fifth chapters, which detail the circumstances of Whittier's enlistment for the anti-slavery conflict and those of his parallel course as a local politician devoted to the interests of Caleb Cushing and Henry Clay, are the most interesting in his book, but the interest is more painful than agreeable at some points along the way. It is hard to reconcile the writing of his 'Justice and Expediency' in 1833 (an elaborate pamphlet following in the wake of Garrison's attack on Colonization), and his publishing it at his own expense—nearly a whole year's hard earnings—with the fact that while he was writing it he was electioneering for Cushing in the most lively manner.

For years he had no such sense of detachment from his party as we associate with the early abolitionists, perhaps because we unwarrantably anticipate a later phase of their development, and do not recognize how liberally the anti-slavery hopes were cherished by the most eager partisans on either side. Considering that Cushing began his efforts to get into Congress in 1826 and did not succeed until 1834, and that all these years Whittier was a worker in Cushing's interest, it is astonishing that the true anti-slavery spirit found any lodgment in his breast. When Cushing's chances were poor, there was a makeshift nomination, and in 1832 this seemed to be coming Whittier's way, and he ran eagerly to meet it. "His few years' experience in practical politics had fostered an ambition for power and patronage of which those can have no idea who only knew him after he had devoted himself to philanthropic labors" (p. 167). A letter on pages 168-9 marks the degree of Whittier's danger, at this time, of hopeless moral wreck. He finds that he is not quite old enough to be a candidate, so he works up a brilliant scheme for keeping Cushing in the field until after November, and then going in himself to win. How painfully familiar are such phrases as the following, as if we had read them in some preëxistent state! Referring to his possible election he says, with the italics:

> "It would give me an opportunity of seeing and knowing our public characters, and, in case of Mr. Clay's election, might enable me to do something for myself and friends. . . . In this matter, if I know my own heart, I am not entirely selfish. I never yet *deserted a friend*, and I never will. If my friends enable me to acquire influence, it shall be exerted for *their benefit*. And give me once an opportunity of exercising it, my first object shall be to evince my gratitude by exertions in behalf of those who had conferred such a favor upon me."

When Cushing was at length elected, he was generally distrusted by the anti-slavery men, but Whittier twice helped him to a re-election, believing he could turn his great ability to the advance of anti-slavery ends. Cushing paid dear for his help by offering the anti-slavery petitions that poured in from his district as from no other. When in 1838 Cushing kicked hard against the anti-slavery pricks, he finally agreed to sign any letter that Whittier might write, and a letter thus written and signed, and hailed by Whittier in the *Pennsylvania Freeman* as "a private note from him in reply to one from ourself as his former neighbor and personal friend," saved him from threatened defeat by a considerable majority. In 1841 it was the anti-slavery record that Whittier had made for Cushing that prevented his confirmation for a place in Tyler's cabinet. Whittier never sailed so near the wind as in the use he made at this time of the letter which he forced on Cushing in 1838.

These aspects of Whittier's career must be taken in connection with his anti-slavery labors as a poet and a journalist before we can have a complete idea of the man. Often it seems as if we were reading, not of one man,

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but of two. Yet whatever is left doubtful, it is perfectly plain that, in allying himself with the Liberty party when it attained a definite consistency, he took no backward step. He did not become more a politician and a partisan than he had been before. He had always been both in one, and for eight years an abolitionist into the bargain. He simply transferred his allegiance from a party hopeless for anti-slavery ends to one which might grow into a powerful instrument of these ends. It did so, giving up the *abolition* of slavery for the prevention of its extension as the final cause of the great agitation. There was not a man alive in 1840 less prepared than Whittier to accept the non-partisan, non-voting programme of Garrison. His political predilection was immense, and so inwrought with every fibre of his character that here, also, he "obeyed the voice at eve obeyed at prime." Nor do these pages afford any evidence that he ever repented of his early doctrine of the claim of the political victors on the spoils. If there is a hint of his devotion to or interest in civil-service reform, it has escaped our scrutiny.

For some years he prevented a congressional election in his district by remaining the Liberty party candidate, but when, in 1843, he could easily have been elected by a coalition of Whigs and Birneyites, his health obliged him to decline the nomination. His political ambition, but not his political influence, ended then and there. It was undoubtedly the greatest disappointment of his life. "A kind Providence," says his biographer, "by a seeming affliction, had set him apart for a still higher usefulness." It is appalling to think how much less Whittier might have been to us if his health had permitted him to enter on a political career. Such a career could not have been a brilliant one, but it might have been profoundly influential. Even his extra-political activity was always that. He dearly loved a political coalition, and in 1850-1 he was a leading spirit in that coalition which elected Boutwell to the governorship of Massachusetts and Sumner to the Senate. Such was his revulsion from Boutwell's conduct as Governor that he at first advised Sumner to withdraw from the contest. Connecting himself with the Free-Soil and Republican parties, neither of which declared for abolition as even the ultimate goal, he was as much an abolitionist as ever in his personal effect, and did splendid service towards that abolitionizing of the Republican party which checked the rage of base concession in 1861 and in a few years made the war-power of the Government an instrument for the emancipation of the slave. Would he have done more or less if his political ambition had been gratified? It is greatly to be feared that his passion for political management would have been fatal to some of the finest motions of his mind and heart, and that, for this reason, together with his engrossment in political affairs, all that is rarest in his later poems, and all that is noblest in his spiritual influence and his personal character, would have come far short of what they actually attained.

In Mr. Pickard's second volume we are on much more familiar ground, and the Whittier presented to us there, in his domestic life, his friendships—largely with women and not always comprehensible—his correspondence, his literary work, his social activity and religious fervor, is much more the Whittier of the common imagination and the common heart than the sharp and eager politician of the earlier times. The meagreness of his returns for literary work before 1868 will be a surprise to many. The *Atlantic* gave him a new market and a better one than he had had before, except the *National Era;* but when that had been going for some years, his livelihood was precarious, and a mortgage threatened his modest house in Amesbury. Then the grief for his lost mother and sister flowered into 'Snow-Bound,' the first sales of which brought him $10,000, and after that he had an easy time. 'The Tent on the Beach' sold a thousand a day for weeks, and he wrote to Fields: "This will never do. The swindle is awful. Barnum is nothing to us." He was a little jealous of the public preference for 'Snow-Bound' over other things. There is much about the origin of various poems and their fortunes that is pleasant reading, and much that is amusing in his relations to his editors and publishers. They gave him many useful hints, and the multitude of his atrocious rhymes was much reduced upon their urgency. To Lowell, it seems, we are indebted for the dialect form of the refrain in "Skipper Ireson's Ride," which Whittier first essayed in 1828. The interrelations of Whittier, Holmes, Emerson, Longfellow, and Lowell are an altogether pleasing and delightful addition to Disraeli's 'Amenities of Literature.'

Whittier did not care for posthumous fame. He early quoted with approval Halleck's couplet:

> "If a garland for my brow
> Is growing, let me have it *now*."

He was not indifferent to admiration and applause, but the notoriety which his reputation finally entailed was a burden almost too great for him to bear. It had many amusing incidents, as had the course of his domestic life, and with these Mr. Pickard has enlivened his pages, and with a kindly inventory of the poet's personal traits. Like Bryant, Whittier had to hold in leash a temper that was naturally quick and hot. Like most people, he liked to tend his own wood-fire, and objected to others' interference. His personal loyalty to Sumner when Sumner broke with Grant in 1872 was greatly to his honor, but then he was always loyal to his friends. He insisted that the anti-slavery cause did more for him than he had ever done for it, and, without underrating his service, it is impossible to read this noble and sincere biography without feeling that he spoke the simple truth.

MEMOIRS OF THREE PAINTERS.

Reminiscences of a Portrait Painter. By George P. A. Healy. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1894.

Pen and Pencil Sketches. By Henry Stacy Marks, R.A. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1894.

The Life and Times of A. B. Durand. By John Durand. With Illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE reminiscences of artists have made some very amusing books. Not to dwell upon the immortal Cellini, we have in the "Egotistography" of so comparatively unimportant a painter as our own Chester Harding a vastly entertaining work. It was, therefore, with anticipations of pleasant reading that we took up the posthumous 'Reminiscences' of the late G. P. A. Healy. In no sense a great artist, Mr. Healy was yet a successful portrait-painter, and during a long life the exercise of his profession brought him into contact with many of the foremost men and women of two continents. He had the typical portrait-painter's character and manner—cool, suave, polite—and must have been, less the genius, not unlike the great Sir Joshua, the accomplished model of a successful portrait-painter. He displayed much ingenuity and persistence in wringing sittings from unwilling patients, and seems to have left a pleasant impression on his sitters and to have converted many of them into warm friends. From popes and kings to scientists, statesmen, and American generals, his acquaintance was vast and varied, and we looked for a fund of interesting anecdote and many little revelations of the character of illustrious men. Our expectations were doomed to disappointment. Either Mr. Healy's sitters never did or said anything particularly characteristic in his presence, or he had not the gift to remember and set down the characteristic things they said and did. His narrative is smooth and colorless, and even the death bed of Gen. Jackson, at which he was present, is not made to interest us. Some account of Thomas Couture, Healy's fellow-pupil under Gros and his lifelong friend, and a couple of rather pale stories about Thackeray, whom he knew slightly, are almost all that remains with one after perusal.

There are some points of resemblance between this book and the second on our list, notably in the arrangement by subject rather than by date, but the points of contrast are far greater. Mr. Marks, not being a painter of portraits, has nothing to tell us of the great ones of the earth. His dramatis personæ are his brother artists, and the only sitters he discourses of are the humble professional model and the birds of the Zoo. There is something of John Ruskin, but otherwise even the literary craft is scarcely represented in his pages. The painters of London seem to live much by themselves and to form a society, or societies, of their own, and it is such an artistic society that is pictured for us "in pen and pencil" in this volume. The artist has often been attempted in fiction, but with little success. Nowadays every one has been reading 'Trilby,' and that novel, written by an artist, comes nearer to portraying the genuine artist life than any other. Mr. Marks, however, gives us the real thing. There is not much of Paris, where neither Marks nor Fred. Walker studied for any length of time; but the circle of which Fred. Walker and Du Maurier himself were part, and which undoubtedly supplied Du Maurier with much of the material for his romance, is here portrayed to the life. There is not so much sentiment as in the novel, but there is a good deal more reality and a good deal more humor.

Most of the members of the "St. John's Wood Clique," to which Mr. Marks belonged, became R.A.'s later, but none of them except Walker has attained to that kind of celebrity which inclines the world to listen with interest to any details that may be vouchsafed us about his life or character. The chapters on Ruskin, Walker, and Charles Keene are those, therefore, that will have the most personal interest. In the rest of the book it is the life itself that interests—its freedom, its gayety, its larks, and its work; the pictures of country holidays, and models, and Academy elections, and Hanging Committee work, and studio bores, and artists' parasites. The actual life of an artist in London, from his student days to the final achievement of Academic dignity and repose (and artist life anywhere is much like it in many things), is here set forth by a clear-sighted observer who has lived the life he writes of, who brings to the painting of it much sense and shrewdness and kindly fun, and who has no other object than to tell the truth. It is not a very exciting life, and the artist is not so

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different from the rest of mankind after all; but if any one is interested to learn what it really is, we know of no book that will so well instruct him.

Other things there are in the book too. Mr. Marks, while declining to give his views of art, has revived some of the papers he wrote while art critic for the *Spectator*, which include accounts of the casting of a bronze statue and of the English method of producing stained glass, as well as an entertaining article on "A Pugilist Painter" and another on theatrical prints. He has also given us a chapter on his admiration for the horse, and his very heterodox dislike of the dog, together with some clever bits of humorous verse of a rather local nature.

We have seen too little of Mr. Marks's painting to speak confidently of his achievement as an artist, but the many illustrations in this book show him to be a conscientious and respectable draughtsman, with a good deal of special knowledge of birds. As a man he reveals himself as a lovable person, and would seem to deserve the stock epithet, the constant application of which to himself he seems somewhat to resent, of "the genial Academician."

Very different is the life depicted in the somewhat ambitiously named volume which we are now to consider. Asher Brown Durand was one of the pioneers of art in a new country. For him there were no student days as there were no schools of art. All the things that make up the life of an artist to day had to be created in his lifetime. The American Academy of Arts was founded in 1802 and incorporated in 1808, but it was not an institution of artists, and the facilities it offered to students were so meagre that a revolt, similar to those which afterwards produced the Society of American Artists and the Art Students' League, took place in 1825, and resulted in the founding of the present National Academy. Durand, then thirty years old and an engraver of reputation, was one of the original members. He was also one of the founders of the Sketch Club, which afterwards became the Century Club. Singularly enough, this volume devotes only a few lines to an incidental mention of the founding of the Academy, and does not give the date of Durand's election as president of that institution. We are told at one point that the Academy has been founded, and at another that Durand has become its president—that is all. The 'Life and Times' of a founder of the National Academy with the founding of the Academy left out is not unlike the play of "Hamlet" without the Prince, but that is what Mr. John Durand has given us.

But if he has left out much that we had a right to expect, he has inserted a good deal that we could readily have spared. Chapter iv., for instance, contains disquisitions on the "nature of art," the "utility of the artist in society," and other equally abstract matters; and the thread of the story is continually interrupted to make place for the author's opinions on "impressionism," or the "decline of the American school," or what not. The "decline of the American school" is a particularly amusing topic in these days when American painters are beginning to take a high rank among the artists of the world, and when there is more able work done in America in a month than used to be done in ten years. In the view of Mr. John Durand, however, even a foreigner who came to America a grown man with his artistic education completed, became, in the old days, at once a representative of the American school, while nowadays a young American who studies for a few years in Paris has for ever lost his Americanism and can never regain it, no matter how long he paints native subjects in his native country. A little knowledge is a dangerous thing—at least to Americanism. But our younger painters are quite able to take care of themselves, and we shall devote ourselves at present to the life of their forerunner.

Asher B. Durand was born in Jefferson Village (now Maplewood), N. J., in 1796. His father was a clockmaker and general mechanic of French Huguenot extraction, and his mother was of old Dutch stock. He seems to have been, like Harding, an example of mechanical ingenuity becoming artistic impulse in the second generation. His father, who, as the story goes, once mended Gen. Washington's spyglass, could do anything with tools, and his brother invented a machine for the teaching of grammar from which the future Academician "learned all the grammar he knew." This same brother afterwards invented the geometrical lathe for banknote engraving. Durand was a delicate child and had little schooling, but spent most of his time rambling in the woods and imbibing a deep love for landscape, or working and playing in his father's shop. Here he began to engrave monograms and ornaments, and soon even figures and animals. Some of his father's customers observed his talent and recommended that he be regularly apprenticed to an engraver. One of them, a Mr. Enos Smith, volunteered to take him to New York and introduce him to Mr. W. S. Leney, "then the most prominent engraver in the city of New York." Mr. Leney's terms were much too high for the slender purse of the elder Durand, and the young man returned home disappointed; but he had seen "the splendid print shops in the vicinity of the City Hall," and never again in his life did he "experience such profound admiration of works of art as was then inspired by this display of colored engravings." A master whose terms were more reasonable was found, and in 1812, at the age of sixteen, Durand was apprenticed to Mr. Peter Maverick of Newark, N. J. He soon surpassed his master, and, at the expiration of his apprenticeship in 1817, became a partner, and before long the leading partner in the concern.

By 1820 his reputation had so increased that Trumbull intrusted him with the engraving of his "Declaration of Independence," and as that artist objected to joining Maverick in the commission, the partnership was dissolved, and thereafter Durand worked for himself. The engraving was completed in 1823, and seems to have placed the engraver at once at the head of his profession—a position he maintained as long as he continued to work on copper. Much of his work was banknote engraving, and in this the lathe invented by his brother was of so much use that a partnership was formed between the two. The vignettes were designed as well as engraved by Durand himself, and some of them are reproduced from the original drawings in this volume. They are pretty and graceful, and were highly appreciated, and the artist built up an enormous business. One of his first attempts at "high art" was an original engraving of "Musidora" from Thomson's 'Seasons,' but as a model for the nude figure could not be found at that time, and "scarcely a plaster cast of any description," it is hardly necessary to add that the result was not very good. A later plate, after Vanderlyn's "Ariadne," is better, but was, of course, equally unsalable in that epoch. The date of the "Musidora" is not given us, but the "Ariadne" was finished in 1835.

The greatest employment of the engraver, as of the painter, in those days, was portraiture, and Durand did a great number of engraved portraits for the "National Portrait Gallery" and other publications. Occasionally one of these is described as "from a painting by the engraver," and gradually the painter of portraits displaced the engraver, as the landscape painter afterwards displaced the portrait-painter. Here again the lack of dates makes itself felt in this biography, but as early as 1830 Durand was conscientiously painting landscape out of doors—perhaps one of the first of our artists to do so. It was 1840 before he went abroad and saw the masterpieces of elder art. In 1869 he retired to his birthplace, where he lived until his death in 1886.

Such a life furnishes much to interest and amuse. We will not pick all the plums from the book, but will indicate a few of them to the reader. At twenty-one Durand was "speaker of the day" at a Fourth of July celebration in Jefferson Village, and his speech, extracts from which are given on pp. 31, 32, is one of the most absurd pieces of old-time spreadeagleism it has ever been our fortune to see. No burlesque could be funnier than this piece of earnest. Durand's literary style always remained rather florid, but he could write sense. Two passages of comment on English pictures which he wrote while abroad in 1840 are worth quoting as instances of sound critical judgment. Of Turner he says:

> "He appears to me the most factitious and artificial of all the distinguished English artists. I discover in him much of imaginative and poetic power, but that appears developed at too great a sacrifice of truth and propriety. At all events if Turner is to be judged by the acknowledged standard of excellence presented in the works of the Old Masters, or by nature in the commonly received acceptation of the term, he must be found wanting."

Nothing could be better than this, and his judgment of Constable, by whom he saw "one picture evincing more of simple truth and naturalness than any English landscape I have ever before met with," shows also that he had eyes wherewith to see.

Of the "cranks" and eccentrics with which this country abounded "before the war" Durand knew not a few, of whom two of the most amusing were Pekenino, the Italian engraver, who in a moment of impecuniosity, by a simple change of lettering, converted a portrait of "A. B. Durand" into one of "Bolivar" (an impression of this plate should be a "find" to the collector); and Sylvester Graham, who divided his time between trying to revolutionize the diet of mankind and trying to "set the world on fire" with poetry. Of all the droll things in the book, however, the drollest is perhaps the account of the art patron as he occasionally appeared in those times. One example of the sort of thing to which our artist was sometimes subjected we cannot refrain from quoting at length:

> "One day a genteel old lady with a bundle of engravings under her arm called upon my father, and introduced herself by stating that she wished to engage him to paint a landscape for her. She had always admired his trees, and wanted a picture composed mainly of these objects. Unrolling her engravings, she pointed to a group in one of them which pleased her very much, also another group in another engraving which was to be copied and placed in front of that group. In one corner of the picture a thicket was to be introduced, from which a lion was to be seen rushing towards a river with a lamb on the shore. The sky was not to occupy much space; the rest of the canvas should be filled with trees. She

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had made a tracing of a stump which she greatly admired, and this was to appear somewhere in the foreground. The river was to be called the Jordan, and John the Baptist with the Saviour were to be seen standing up to their knees in the water. On my father's remarking that these models, copied indiscriminately from works by Rubens, Poussin, Claude, and other modern painters, were not consistent with Oriental history, she replied that 'any other baptism would do as well.' Finally, on his declining the commission, she regretted this very much, as she had been reflecting on the design for two years, and had brought the material with her to save the artist trouble."

The book, the edition of which is limited to 500 small-paper and 100 large-paper copies, has been printed in London, with English orthography. It is provided with two appendices, an index in which we have been able to find nothing we have looked for, and *two* tables of errata!

Golf: A Royal and Ancient Game. Edited by Robert Clarke. Macmillan.

A FEW years ago we called attention to the good qualities of the game of golf and predicted its spread in this country. To-day the word is on everybody's tongue, the supply of golf implements is in constant danger of exhaustion, new links are being laid out on all sides, and young men and maidens are scattering lost balls and imprecations over the length and breadth of the land. It is even reported that domestic feuds have arisen over the question whether the word should be pronounced as written, or according to the English fashion *goff*, or the Scotch fashion *goaf*. However this weighty question may be finally decided, there is, unfortunately, no doubt whatever that the disappointments of the game are conducive to bad language. A Scotsman, who was once singing its praises, admitted that it led to much profanity, and that he, being in the ministry, had had to give it up. "What!" said his friend, "give up golf!" "No," said he, "the ministry."

Casual observers regard this sudden infatuation of the community as a transient fashion, like voluminous sleeves, but those who know the history of the game know that when it comes it comes to stay. It would be difficult to determine what particular feature of the game it is that makes it so generally attractive. What usually happens is that A sees B and C playing, and says to himself that it is easy to learn and that he could probably play quite as well as they do. Now, good play requires much more skill than the uninitiated spectator imagines, and a desperate desire to improve seems to take possession of every beginner as soon as he realizes that success is not easy. At this stage of the golf disease the sufferer pores over the diagrams in the Badminton volume, and is discovered by his friends, club in hand, in the act of performing sundry strange contortions not unattended by danger to the ornaments on the mantelpiece. If his rooms in town are too small for the purpose, he has been known to arrange a net in the back-yard and there spend his leisure moments in the effort to *swing* with accuracy and freedom.

After six months of such serious endeavor, he will have mastered the rudiments of the art, and his education will be so far advanced that he can appreciate the mass of curious golf lore which Mr. Clark has gathered together in this book. Here he will find epics and lyrics and long lists of bygone champions, together with a great variety of illustrations and a wealth of anecdote. He will be interested to learn that the game is as old as the Romans, and that there may even be some foundation for the improbable story that Rameses II. once made a successful tee-shot over the apex of the Pyramid of Cheops. With pardonable pride he will read how, in later years, the game became so important and so universal as to influence the balance of trade between nations, so that James I. conferred a monopoly of ball-manufacture on one James Melvil, in order to prevent the export of "no small quantity of gold and silver" to pay for Dutch golf-balls. And, having absorbed from Mr. Clark's pleasant pages a quantity of such information, he will resume the practice of driving with a chastened spirit and a profound sense of archæological responsibility.

The Pearl of India. By Maturin M. Ballou. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1894.

ONE can almost hear the shrill sound of the Surrang's whistle to "let her go," as the anchor drops in the harbor of Columbo from the bow of the "good ship" (all ships that carry us safely are "good") that conveyed Mr. Ballou from the Straits Settlement to "India's utmost Isle." It is not India's Isle at all, though the poet said so; but the saying is too good to be gainsaid two hundred years after his death, even if Ceylon has meantime acquired a political autonomy perfectly distinct from that of the "Imperial Government"—by which high-sounding title the Viceroy of India and his Council are officially styled. Mr. Ballou admired the palms, of course, and the splendid foliage; but, long before the anchor drops, one has peered into these until the vision grows dim. The traveller is early interested in the first visitors to the ship. Mr. Ballou does not venture to decide the mooted point whether the crows in search of chops or the Moormen in search of cash first pay their respects to the incoming ship. The Moormen are intensely interested in the passengers. Mr. Ballou calls these visitors "a set of confirmed knaves and adroit swindlers," offering extraordinary opportunities to acquire the choicest gems of the East. Glass and low-class sapphires disguised under the name of diamonds occasionally bring high prices in Columbo Bay. The traveller will act wisely in following Mr. Ballou's advice, and be chary of all dealings with the man who says: "Master, give you bargains—good bargains—morning time."

"It is safe to say," remarks Mr. Ballou, "no point presents more varied attractions to the observant traveller, more thoroughly and picturesquely exhibits equatorial life, or addresses itself more directly to the delicate appreciation of the artist, botanist, antiquarian, general scientist, and sportsman, than does Ceylon, gem of the Orient." The stranger is assured of "safety and good health" in "this fabled isle of Arabian story." The climate is "equable and most delightful"; the cost of living is "as moderate as in Southern Europe"; and the land is "traversed by railways and excellent Government roads." The nights, too, were "gloriously serene and bright," "so full of a delicious sense of repose." This is a just account; the public highways, in particular, are not surpassed by those of any country in Europe.

The description of life in the Pettah, the black quarter of Columbo, is exceedingly well done. There Mr. Ballou was much struck with the presence of the nude in real life, the great abundance and cheapness of fruits, with one exception—grapes, for which the price of thirty cents per pound was demanded. It is just possible that Mr. Ballou confounded the coin denominated a cent in Ceylon with the American cent. The Singhalese cent is not more than two-fifths the value of the American cent. The rupee contains the same quantity of silver as an American half-dollar, and the Singhalese cent is the one-hundredth part of a rupee, which has only the commercial value of the silver it contains. While the observations upon native life are keen, it does not appear that our author often saw much of the inside of European life. He speaks highly of the Grand Oriental Hotel in Columbo, but has a poor opinion of the two Kandy hostelries. Personal comfort has much to do with the delights of travelling, and it is to be feared that Mr. Ballou did not enjoy the courtesies of the Kandy Club or of the Hill Club at the Hill station, Newera Elia. The latter place he denominates the Saratoga of Ceylon, though it might be more properly compared with Asheville. He states that the island has an excellent system of free schools, a government which in form and effect is a "paternal despotism," a system of railways that pays expenses and a handsome dividend to the State—and a great abundance of snakes. The snakes may be passed by with this single comment, that the danger from their presence has been unduly magnified. The cobra is a much abused and misrepresented animal. He rarely attacks except in self-defence, while another species of snakes performs the important function of ratcatcher. These snakes may be frequently seen on the ceilings—not on the walls—of the Kandy Club engaged in this legitimate and meritorious occupation.

The Singhalese and the Tamils from southern India are the leading races, the latter being largely engaged on the tea and coffee plantations. Mr. Ballou falls into error in stating that the Tamils are imported by the planters. The planters contract for plantation-labor with local labor-brokers, called "chetties," who import the laborers from southern India, upon terms that enable them to share a considerable proportion of their wages. The laborers are distributed on the estates in charge of "kinganis," the native equivalent for "bosses." The chetties are large dealers in rice, and are also the native private bankers. One may not rarely meet a chetty in Columbo whose personal outfit consists solely of a turban on his head and a thin gauze about his waist, the value of the whole outfit not exceeding a dollar and a half, whose personal credit at the banks is good for twenty thousand pounds. Mr. Ballou says little or nothing of the system of banking or the currency. Every chartered bank retains on its staff a "schroff," or native cashier, who is paid a large salary. He decides what accounts shall be accepted from natives, and guarantees the payment of these accounts. There are few losses from this source. Polyandry, it is stated, "is still countenanced in Ceylon." This statement must be taken with some qualification. Polyandry largely prevailed in the Kandian district, and the legal effect of marriages contracted before 1871 is still recognized. Since that date an island ordinance has made polyandry illegal, and, with the above exception, it now receives no countenance from the law.

The ruins of Anuradhapura evidence the existence of a large city on the great central plain, but it may be doubted whether the author has not, to use his own phrase, passed beyond the "trail of history" in attempting to reconstruct, so to say, the "buried cities," and in peopling Anuradhapura with a population

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of 3,000,000 souls—about equal to the present population of the whole island. He passes a just censure upon the mummeries daily practised at the Temple of Buddha's Tooth in Kandy. "The famous tooth itself," he declares, "is far too large to have ever come from the mouth of a human being, and is probably that of some defunct elephant or crocodile." The systems of irrigation both ancient and modern, which are among the most remarkable that ever existed, are lucidly discussed.

Upon the whole, although 'The Pearl of India' lacks the splendid reveries of 'Eothen,' or the judicious reflections of Dr. Field in his voyage 'From Egypt to Japan,' it is one of the most interesting books on Ceylon yet written. It is not overladen with statistics or encumbered with uninteresting details. The narrative is enriched by comparisons with scenes in other lands, of which the author speaks from personal knowledge.

Wild Beasts: A study of the characters and habits of the elephant, lion, leopard, panther, jaguar, tiger, puma, wolf, and grizzly bear. By J. Hampden Porter. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1894. Pp. viii, 380, 8vo. Illustrated.

THE author of this interesting volume seems to have been impressed by the uncritical and inaccurate character of much of the literature relating to wild animals, especially that which treats of temperament and disposition, or of their methods of attacking their prey. It is an easy matter, especially if one goes back to the time of Buffon, to find much that is unjustified by real knowledge put forth as fact in journals of adventure and popular works on natural history. But few will have realized, before reading our author's very effective polemic, how much there is of tradition and pure assumption in the prevalent ideas about wild beasts. It is the most natural thing in the world in speaking of them to interpret their actions, as we do those of our fellow-men, as if based on a purely human motive, or to weigh them by the standard of human ethics. The beast that springs from ambush on an unsuspecting traveller is termed "treacherous," though we do not call a gunner treacherous who shoots ducks from a blind. There is a story of a famous elephant who bore the imperial standard on some old Mogul-Mahratta battle field. The day had gone against his side, the color-guard was scattered, retreating squadrons swept past the animal, and his mahout was dead. He stood fast, however, and finally the retreating forces rallied around him and the field was retrieved. Imaginative writers have discovered here a high sense of duty and heroic self-sacrifice, like that of the unrelieved Roman sentinel at Pompeii, who stuck to his post to the last. Actually, the animal had been ordered by his keeper, whom he was accustomed to obey, to stand still, and did so. But there is as much (or little) reason for the ascription of moral sentiments to this elephant as there would have been had he been ordered to run away and obeyed.

Mr. Porter seems to have had and improved many opportunities for observing the larger wild animals. An account of a tame puma which he possessed for a long time, is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of animal psychology, as well as a very interesting story. The discussion of the intelligence, the courage or cowardice, and the feral morality (to coin a phrase) of the particular wild beasts to which the book is devoted, is interspersed with illustrative anecdotes and evidence at first hand. We think no one who follows the author's argument will lay the book down without a clearer conception of the real life of wild animals and a better understanding of their relations to man and to each other.

As regards intelligence and courage in these beasts, the author comes to a conclusion not very different from that of the best students of wild animals of the last twenty years. The chief discrepancy is in regard to the elephant, which Mr. Porter regards as less intelligent, less responsive, and more dangerous than he has hitherto been described. Not only do these animals become insane, but many of them seem to bear a grudge against the human race, and are controlled only by fear. In general, the author believes that there is a wider range of individual characteristics, mind, and temper among animals than is usually supposed; that they modify their habits to meet the changes of the environment, including the presence of trappers and hunters; and that it is unsafe from a few observations, or from observations of them in a few localities, to make wide generalizations on such matters.

The Natural Law of Money. By William Brough. Putnams. 1894.

THIS little book is one of the most meritorious of recent publications upon monetary science. In a remarkably simple and lucid style Mr. Brough shows that the tendency to substitute credit in place of material substances is the distinctive mark of progress in the art of effecting exchanges. Following the great law of action in the line of least resistance, as civilization has advanced men have used and discarded as money a number of substances, such as shells, cattle, iron, copper, tobacco, and silver. Gold has now become the standard money of international trade, but its use as currency is decreasing as compared with that of credit. The more economical and effective instrument displaces that which is less so. Only let men be assured that promis s to pay are well secured, and for the purposes of currency they would rather have them than payment.

As Mr. Brough clearly shows, the action of Government in attempting to make anything "legal tender" is often futile and generally mischievous. Men have their own opinions concerning values, and if they regard the legal-tender money as of inferior value, they are sure to put up the prices of whatever they have to sell. Even if they are assured that the power of Government is sufficient to hold inferior money up to its nominal value, they are constantly uneasy for fear that the will of the Government may not correspond with its power. What the Government can do, as experience (at least modern experience) has proved, is to assay the precious metals and coin them into pieces of convenient size, shape, and fineness. Having done this, and having prescribed that where men are silent as to the medium of exchange required by their contracts, specified coins shall be presumed to have been agreed upon, the duty of Government is discharged. Then men can employ as money whatever they choose, and they will choose what they can employ to the best advantage.

Under such a system as this, silver would be used as money in those regions where it was preferred, and gold and paper would be employed where they were found advantageous. The inconveniences and disasters that have been attendant upon the recent silver agitation would have been avoided had governments not attempted to fix its value. There is unquestionably room for the employment of vast quantities of silver as money. Had it not been given a factitious value by the action of governments in making it a legal tender, it would not have been subjected to the violent fluctuations caused by the change in governmental policy. Its value would have declined normally and gradually if the quantity produced had been found to be greater than the market requirements, and the consequent diminution of the quantity produced would have restored the value. The actual circumstances indicate that a considerable part of the value of silver was due to the fact that the action of Government enabled the owners and producers of it to get more gold in exchange for it than they could have got in a free market.

It seems deplorable that the bimetallists should be so actively employed in endeavoring to force silver as a legal tender upon those who do not want it. They cannot fully accomplish their purpose unless they can secure legislation and judicial decision which will avoid contracts specifically payable in gold by making them payable in silver. But they can accomplish a good deal. As Mr. Brough says, if silver is to be restored at any higher valuation than what it has in the market, a derangement of prices will take place which will result in transferring a large part of the property of the simple to the possession of the astute. The mass of the people would be quite incapable of estimating the value of their goods according to the depreciated standard, and would be likely at first to underestimate the value of their property in the new and cheaper money. They would be likely after a time to overestimate values, and the wicked capitalists would cheat them at both ends of the fluctuation, buying their property of them for less than it was worth, and selling it back to them for more than it was worth. They might even lend them money on bond and mortgage, and then by another gigantic and wholly unsuspected conspiracy restore the gold standard, with all its horrors for the debtor class.

The example of Canada is very effectively presented by Mr. Brough. The gold reserve of that country is but about $13,000,000, but the currency is perfectly safe, and the banks are able not only to supply the wants of Canadian trade, but also to render valuable assistance to our own. Their notes are not secured by the deposit of bonds, but are a first lien upon the capital of the banks, and are further secured by the double liability of the stockholders, by a note-redemption fund, and by the combined guarantee of all the banks. No Canadian bank has failed since 1880, and no suspension of specie payments has taken place for a generation. The system is weakened by the issue of Government notes, which are legal tender, and which the banks are compelled to hold as part of their reserves; but with all its imperfections it compares favorably with our own. According to Mr. Brough's computation, a paper currency of $16.40 per head is maintained in Canada upon a metal basis of only $2.64 per head; while the same proportion of paper in the United States is combined with gold to the amount of $4.16 per head and silver to the amount of $7.20 per head, assigning silver its nominal value. It seems, therefore, that with one-third the metallic reserve the Canadian system works very well, while ours, in spite of its expensiveness, works very poorly. It is evident that in modern times what is demanded is neither metallic money nor a large metal reserve. Credit money is the best money, and the examples of Scotland and of Canada show that it can be made safe, while it is perfectly

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elastic. We do not need to annex the Dominion, but we might profitably copy its monetary system.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Francis. A Child of the Age. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Aldrich, T. B. The Story of a Bad Boy. Illustrated by A. B. Frost. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Allen, C. D. American Book Plates: A Guide to their Study with Examples. Macmillan. $3.50.
Allen, J. L. A Kentucky Cardinal. Harpers. $1.
Allen, Prof. A. V. G. Religious Progress. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Allen, W. B. Lost on Umbagog. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 75 cents.
Allen, W. C. A Son of the Morning: Incidents in the Life of Richard Davies. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
American Annual of Photography. Scovill & Adams Co. 50 cents.
Axon, W. E. A. The Ancoats Skylark, and Other Verses. London: John Heywood.
Barnes, Profs. Mary S. and Earl. Studies in American History. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Barrett, Frank. The Justification of Andrew Lebrun. Appletons.
Block, Clementina. An Agitator. Harpers. $1.
Bolton, C. K. On the Wooing of Martha Pitkin. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75 cents.
Bramwell, Amy B. The Training of Teachers in the United States. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Braddon, M. E. The Christmas Hirelings. Harpers. $1.25.
Briggs, Prof. C. A. The Messiah of the Gospels. Scribners. $2.
Briggs, W., and Bryan, G. H. A Text-Book of Dynamics. London and New York: W. B. Clive.
Briggs, W., and Bryan, G. H. A Text-Book of Statics. London and New York: W. B. Clive.
Browning, Robert. Complete Works. 9 vols. Macmillan. $20.
Bruce, Wallace. Wayside Poems. Harpers. $2.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Piccino, and Other Child Stories. Scribners. $1.50.
Burtsall, Sara A. The Education of Girls in the United States. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Great Composers. Revised and enlarged edition. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.
Cesaresco, Countess Evelyn Martinengo. The Liberation of Italy. Scribners. $1.75.
Chandler, Mrs. Izora C. Three of Us. Hunt & Eaton. $2.
Chatterbox for 1894. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.25.
Clement, Clara E. Naples, the City of Parthenope. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $3.
Cummings, F. D. Religion and the Bible. *Truth Seeker* Co. 50 cents.
Dement, Isaac S. Baron Kinatas: A Tale of the Anti-Christ. Chicago: M. T. Need. 50 cents.
Dumas, Alexandre. The Three Musketeers. Illustrations by Maurice Leloir. 2 vols. Appletons. $12.
Errera, Prof. Leo. The Russian Jews. Extermination or Emancipation? London: D. Nutt; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Fazy, Henri. Les Suisses et la Neutralité de la Savoie, 1703—1704. Geneva: Georg & Cie.
Fields, Mrs. James T. A Shelf of Old Books. Scribners. $2.50.
Gamlin, Hilda. George Romney and his Art. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Garnett, Edward. An Imaged World: Poems in Prose. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Gaye, Selina. The Great World's Farm. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Goodwin, Maud W. The Colonial Cavalier. Illustrated. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Gordon, Mrs. The Life and Correspondence of William Buckland. Appletons. $3.50.
Gosse, Edmund. In Russet and Silver. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.
Harper's *Young People*. 1894. Harpers. $3 50.
Harte, W. B. Meditations in Motley. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Haynes, Mary S. New Streams in Old Channels: Selected from the Writings of Lyman Abbott, D.D. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Hicks, John. The Man from Oshkosh. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Hill, G. B. Harvard College, by an Oxonian. Macmillan. $2.25.
Hilty, Prof. C. Glück. Zweiter Teil. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
Hosmer, F. L., and Gannett, W. C. The Thought of God in Hymns and Poems. Second Series. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Jacobs, Joseph. More Celtic Fairy Tales. London; David Nutt; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Fables of Æsop. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Johnston, R. M. Little Ike Templin, and Other Stories. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Jones, H. A. Judah: An Original Play in Three Acts. Macmillan. 75 cents.
Kaplan, A. O. The Prince of Hades. Illustrated. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Lathrop, George P., and Rose H. A Story of Courage: Annals of the Georgetown Convent. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Leclerc, Max. Les Professions et la Société en Angleterre. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Leune, Albert. Difficult Modern French. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Locke, W. J. At the Gate of Samaria: A Novel. Appletons. $1.
Lodge, Harriet N. A Bit of Finesse. Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Co.
Loftie, W. J. The Inns of Court and Chancery. New ed. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Longfellow, Samuel. Hymns and Verses. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Maclaren, Ian. Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Mann, Dr. E. C. The Rights and Duties of Citizens of the United States. F. H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Marshall, Prof. A. A. Lectures on the Darwinian Theory. Macmillan. $2.25.
Moffett, S. E. Suggestions on Government. Rand, McNally & Co.
Molesworth, Mrs. Blanche: A Story for Girls. Whittaker. $1.50.
More, Paul E. The Great Refusal: Being Letters of a Dreamer in Gotham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Novicow, J. La Guerre et ses prétendus Bienfaits. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Page, Mary B. Graded Schools in the United States of America. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Pardoe, H. C. Up the Susquehanna. Hunt & Eaton. $1.
Parkhurst, H. E. The Bird's Calendar. Scribners. $1.50.
Parigot, Hippolyte. Génie et Métier. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Paston, George. A Bread and Butter Miss. Harpers. $1.
Paterson, Arthur. The Daughter of the Nez-Perces. G. G. Peck.
Paull, Minnie E. Ruby at School. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.
Pope, Joseph. Memoirs of Sir John Alexander Macdonald, Prime Minister of Canada. 2 vols. Ottawa: J. Durie & Son.
Randall, Paul Astor. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co. 50 cents.
Repplier, Agnes. In the Dozy Hours. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Ritchie, Mrs. Anne Thackeray. Chapters from Some Unwritten Memoirs. Harpers. $2.
Robinson, Rev. C. S. Simon Peter, his Later Life and Labors. T. Nelson & Sons. $1.25.
Rogers, R. C. The Wind in the Clearing, and Other Poems. Putnams. $1.25.
Samuels, Adelaide F. Father Gander's Melodies for Mother Goose's Grandchildren. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Sharman, H. R. The Power of the Will; or, Success. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Simonds, Prof. W. E. An Introduction to the Study of English Fiction. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Smith, Prof. C. L. The Odes and Epodes of Horace. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.60.
Spalding, Rev. J. L. Things of the Mind. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Social Register, New York, 1895. Social Register Association.
Society List and Club Register. Tenth Year. Brentano's. $3.
Southwick, Dr. E. B. The Better World. *Truth Seeker* Co. 50 cents.
Stagg, A. A., and Williams, H. L. A Scientific and Practical Treatise on American Football. Revised to date. Appletons.
Steel, Flora A. Tales of the Punjab, Told by the People. Macmillan. $2.
The Adventures of Ferdinand Tomasso. The Irving Co.
The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe. [The Children's Library.] London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Todd, Mrs. Mabel L. Letters of Emily Dickinson. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Walker, Gen. Francis A. General Hancock. [Great Commanders.] Appletons.
Watson, Rev. R. A. The Book of Numbers. [Expositor's Bible.] Armstrong. $1.50.
Waxweiler, Emile. Choses d'Amérique. Brussels: P. Weissenbruch.
Waxweiler, Emile. Les Hauts Salaires aux Etats-Unis. Brussels: Jean Viselé.

DECEMBER

EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

ARTICLES—Relation of Professional to General Education, Francis A. Walker—Bashfulness in Children, J. Mark Baldwin—Student Coöperation in College Government, Ethelbert D. Warfield—A Scheme of Sociological Study, George E. Vincent—School Supervision in Pennsylvania, R. K. Buehrle—University Opportunities for Women, Louis Frank.

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